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Adjusting to Individual Differences in English

Chapter I — Reading Skills

Not much more than a generation ago, high school students were more alike than different in academic ability and vocational interests. Since 1920 the high school population has multiplied two and one-half times; the number of different vocational opportunities is now estimated as high as 100,000. Preparing all kinds of pupils with all kinds and degrees of academic ability for all kinds of futures has become your job.

Because of this revolution in the population and scope of the high school, it is entirely normal for a class to have a wide range of differences in achievement. The better the teaching in the elementary school, the wider the range will be. Good teaching is not a levelling process; it capitalizes on differences and, at the same time that attempts are made to help the slow learner, the fast learner is challenged to develop at his potential speed so that the range of difference is extended, not diminished. A ninth-grade class with a range in reading ability from third grade to college is neither unusual nor unfortunate. It does present a problem to you and to thousands of other secondary school teachers who are trying to plan for tomorrow without neglecting the job that must be done today.

If you are ready to adapt your materials and your classroom procedures to the individual differences in reading ability of your pupils, you must begin by finding the answers to three questions. The first is basically a question of philosophy of education: What goals are you and your students aiming for in the months ahead? What reading skills are necessary to reach these goals? To what degree does each student already possess these skills?

Goals for the Reading Program

The answer to the first question represents flight orders for the class. Without such objectives, teacher and students both will be flying blind. It is, of course, your duty as squadron leader to chart the flight. You can find general objectives in the goals set up by the Commission on the English Curriculum of the NCTE in *The English Language Arts*, in your local course of study, and in textbooks. But the final job of defining the specific objectives for your classes still belongs to you. The standards of the community as well as the vocational and educational plans of your pupils must be taken into account. Furthermore, you must always stand ready to alter your course to fit the skills and abilities of the pupils unless you want to risk finishing the year in a magnificent solo flight.

Most English teachers would agree that the goals they aim at in the reading program are, broadly speaking, two:

— To lead pupils to find the enjoyment and profit in reading which will make their personal lives happier and their relationships to other people, to their work, and to their country richer and more rewarding

— To teach pupils the reading skills necessary to understand their school textbooks and to read many other books with profit and zest, always within the limits of their individual abilities. Teaching the reading skills is basic, for few persons find either pleasure or profit in a book which they have not the skill to read easily.

Provisions for Individual Differences in the Total School Program

The need for provision for individual differences in reading skills has been recognized for a long time. Procedures, mostly administrative in nature, have been developed to relieve the most acute problems for which the traditional course of study in the language arts has had no solution. These procedures have included the following:

— the provision of special classes for slow learners

— the provision of remedial classes for average and superior pupils whose accomplishments have lagged behind their ability

— the offering of elective courses for superior pupils, especially in the twelfth grade where, in some schools, pupils may elect journalism, dramatics, creative writing, and other specialized courses

— the acceleration of superior pupils who, in some schools, may complete the high school course in a shorter period of time

— the retardation of slow learners who may take a lighter program and an extra year to complete the course

homogeneous grouping. This is the most common administrative attack on the problem of individual differences.

— curricular grouping. This type of organization tends to bring together pupils of similar vocational and educational objectives, but the range of abilities within these groups is still extensive. Only the very naive teacher believes that all the pupils in his college-preparatory groups represent the same high level of ability or that his "general" students are all drawn from the lower centiles in intelligence and achievement.

These and other administrative devices may serve to some extent to limit the range of reading abilities within class sections, but they by no means solve the problem. The classroom teacher is still face to face with a practical, every-day-in-the-week dilemma: What immediate steps can I take to provide for the individual differences in my classes? What long-range planning must I do to improve my teaching techniques and facilities?

Taking Inventory

You can begin with some systematic analysis. No real progress can be made in charting a course without knowing exactly what the resources and needs of your pupils are.

Standardized survey reading tests will provide some basic information. Such a test will give you the following facts about your class:

— the range of differences

— the standing of a particular class in comparison with pupils at this grade level in other schools. If local norms have been prepared, you can see how a particular group compares

with similar groups who took the same test in past years in the same school.

— a list of the individuals within the class group who are most handicapped and who need special attention

— very general clues as to the area of particular difficulty of an individual or of a class as a whole. A low vocabulary score, for example, tells you that a pupil is having trouble with words. It does *not* reveal whether his experience is so limited that he can attach no meaning to the symbols even though he can pronounce them, whether he could have understood the words if they had been pronounced for him, or what degree of power he has to "unlock" the meaning of words by observation of their parts.

Survey tests, therefore, do not provide an adequate basis for planning a skills improvement program. Much more specific information is necessary about the kinds of strengths and weaknesses pupils possess. A few standardized diagnostic reading tests are available which yield more detailed information than the survey tests. To be effective these tests must be long enough to provide reliability in their subtest scores. Some of the published tests which yield several subtest scores are diagnostically reliable only on a class basis, since the subtests are too short to yield reliable scores for individual diagnosis.

A more practical approach for many teachers, since it involves the use of materials which they already possess, is diagnosis based on informal tests with the material of these tests drawn directly from the pupils' own textbooks. This method has the added advantage of seeming more meaningful to the pupil himself. You may construct tests of this sort in either of two ways:

Type A: Start with a list of skills which you believe to be important for your work and build a series of tests covering these skills. Materials may be drawn from any convenient source, such as textbooks, magazine articles, and newspapers.

Type B: Start with a textbook which you plan to use extensively in a certain group. Analyze the book itself to determine what reading skills are most necessary for its successful use. Then build a set of tests covering these skills and using parts of the textbook itself as test material.

Each of these methods will give diagnostic information of value. The second may, and often should, lead you to conclude that the textbook needs to be supplemented strongly at both extremes: for the slow pupils and for the superior ones. Such a procedure is a test of the textbook as well as of the class. The method is applicable to textbooks in any subject matter area.

Suppose your class is a junior high school group with rather poor reading ability. You might decide to stress some of the basic skills such as the following: recognizing words by phonetic clues, reading to answer specific questions of detail, reading an index, using a dictionary, phrasing in oral reading, reading for main ideas, remembering a time sequence, reading to distinguish between fact

and opinion, reading to judge characters in a story. In addition, you would probably want a test of recall, which involves several skills. The exact list of skills you select will depend on several factors, such as maturity of the pupils, material to be used by the class, and kinds of skills necessary in the assignments you plan to give. Having decided what skills to emphasize, you will construct informal tests designed to evaluate the individual pupils' abilities.

On the following pages both types of tests are illustrated. Neither sample test is intended to be complete. The first informal test, Type A, contains representative questions suitable for a junior high school group. In constructing your own test of this kind, you would want to add several more questions under each heading and perhaps select from the *Partial List of Specific Reading Skills* additional skills to test.

The second informal test, Type B, is based on a widely used high school literature anthology. It emphasizes some of the higher reading skills and was prepared for a senior high school class with fairly good general reading ability. Again, because of limitations of space, most of the material on which the test is based is not reproduced in this chapter and only sample questions are given under each part of the test. One distinct advantage of this kind of testing is that the material does not have to be mimeographed. The pupils work directly from their books.

Informal Test: Type A

I. Individual Test on Use of Word Analysis Clues.

Select a list of phonetically spelled words difficult enough to be unfamiliar to most of the pupils. Type the words with no clue to pronunciation except the accent mark. Have each pupil individually read the list of words to you while other pupils are doing written work. The pupil who can do this task easily and quickly has good mastery of word analysis skills. There will be varying degrees of slowness and inaccuracy down to the occasional secondary school pupil who has no power of word attack at all. Some typical words are *ultramundane*, *diopside*, and *notability*.

II. Reading to Recall Specific Detail.

Select a passage of non-fiction which contains a large amount of factual detail. Instruct pupils to read the passage and to prepare to remember it in detail. Then present them with a series of questions calling for recall of detail. Pupils answer the questions without referring to the original material. The test becomes essentially a test of skimming if the pupils are allowed to refer to the material as they answer the questions.

III. Reading an Index.

Select an index in one of the pupils' textbooks or mimeograph part of an index. Write questions to test the pupils' ability to use the alphabetical arrangement, to read subheadings, to distinguish between major and minor entries, and to use "see" and "see also" references.

IV. Using a Dictionary.

Build a test covering the main skills in using a dictionary: word meaning, syllabication, accent, use of diacritical marks, spelling, parts of speech, plurals, abbreviations, use of appendix, choosing meaning to fit context, etc.

V. Phrasing in Oral Reading.

Divide the class into groups of four or five pupils each on the basis of their standardized reading scores. Take one group at a time for oral reading. The rest of the class should be provided with a specific assignment to be done independently while the teacher is testing. Select test materials of difficulty slightly below the reading level shown by the small group in their standardized test scores. Have pupils sit to read in order to reduce to a minimum the tension which often accompanies oral reading. Let each pupil read in turn two or three connected paragraphs which he has not previously examined. As he reads, score him on phrasing. A five-point scale is usually adequate: Excellent — Good — Fair — Poor — Very Poor. The teacher experienced in informal testing can make this one oral test serve several other purposes as well, such as noting substitutions, additions, omissions, repetitions, adequacy of sight vocabulary, and phonetic attack on unfamiliar words.

Partial List of Specific Reading Skills

Vocabulary Skills

- Pronouncing words by use of phonetic clues
- Using syllables in word pronunciation
- Using context as an aid to word meaning
- Using common prefixes, suffixes, and roots as aids to word pronunciation and meaning
- Reading dialect

Locational Skills

- Reading a table of contents
- Reading an index
- Using the card catalogue
- Reading cross references
- Using a glossary

Comprehension Skills

- Reading for specific details
- Reading for main ideas
- Reading tables, charts, diagrams
- Reading a dictionary
- Organizational Reading:
  - Reading to see relationship of details to main points
  - Reading to follow directions
  - Reading to follow sequence
    - — plot development
    - — character development
    - — development of argument
  - Reading to recognize patterns of organization
    - — enumerative
    - — time
    - — contrast, etc.
  - Reading to recall in pattern used by author
  - Formal outlining
- "Reading between the Lines" to
  - Visualize
  - Generalize
  - Interpret figurative language
  - Feel rhythm
  - Make inferences
  - Compare with something known before
  - Distinguish between fact and opinion
  - Detect bias and prejudice
  - Forecast results and draw conclusions
  - Evaluate
  - Recognize mood
  - Judge character

Speed

- Skimming
- Adjusting speed to nature of content
- Adjusting speed to purpose in reading

Oral Reading

- Phrasing
- Interpreting meaning through emphasis and inflection
- Following punctuation signals
- Reading at appropriate speed

VI. Reading for Main Ideas.

Select paragraphs from any source. Informational material is most suitable. The paragraphs in the test should be of various types: paragraphs with introductory topic sentences, paragraphs with topic sentences elsewhere than at the beginning, paragraphs without topic sentences. The following is an example of the last type:

> When grand-dad was a boy, he brandished a wooden sword and toy bugle and charged up San Juan Hill with Teddy Roosevelt's Rough Riders. Not too long ago every boy spent part of his dreams as "Lindy" bumping along in the wild blue yonder in the *Spirit of St. Louis*. Within the memory of today's adolescents, the G-man reigned supreme, and cereal box tops were bartered for G-man badges, fingerprint sets, and other paraphernalia of scientific crime detection. Today children sit saucer-eyed and worshipful before their television sets to watch the latest adventure of a new hero, the explorer of outer space. In a few short years, this current favorite has unseated Hopalong Cassidy as the youngsters' hero, and space helmets and ray guns have become as necessary to the children's dream world as lariats and six-shooters were a few Christmases ago.

The test may be made easy by providing the pupil with a list of main ideas which he matches with the paragraphs or difficult by requiring that he write the main idea of each paragraph in a sentence of his own.

VII. Reading to Remember a Time Sequence.

Select several connected paragraphs, either a narrative or a description involving steps in a process. After pupils have read the material, ask them to place a jumbled series of statements in correct order without referring to the original.

A harder test is to have pupils read a similar passage and, without reference to the original, list in correct sequence the events which they consider most important.

VIII. Unaided Written Recall.

Have pupils read a passage of informative prose. Then, without referring to the material again, have them write all they remember,

trying to reproduce the organization as well as the facts of the original. Papers may be scored as follows:

	Good	Fair	Poor
Recall of main ideas	√		
Reproduction of the author's organizational pattern		√	
Recall of detail		√	

IX. Reading to Distinguish between Fact and Opinion.

The following sample items suggest types of tests which can be constructed.

Directions: Place an X in the space before each item which you consider a matter of opinion instead of fact.

.....Major leagues play a regular schedule of games which begin in April and end in September.

.....It is fascinating to speculate on whether or not Mars is inhabited.

Directions: Find and underline at least one expression of opinion.

Franklin was the greatest American who ever lived. His influence in the politics of his day was enormous, and he was equally great in the field of science. In that field he was concerned with almost every known kind of knowledge. As an inventor he made numerous contributions. For example, he designed a new kind of stove, invented a device for lifting books to high shelves, and worked out a new kind of clock movement. He loved his city of Philadelphia. There he founded the first circulating library in America and was responsible for the founding of the University of Pennsylvania. It is a marvel to everyone how he could have done so much in one lifetime.

X. Reading to Detect Clues to Character.

Directions: Read the first chapter of Marjorie Kinnan Rawlings' *The Yearling*. Find in the story the parts which help you to know whether the following statements are true or false. On the line before each statement, write *True* or *False*. After each statement write a fact from the story which helped you to decide.

.....Jody was lonely.

.....He was a boy who noticed things around him.

.....He liked helping his father on the farm.

.....He was a strong young lad.

Informal Test: Type B

(The following test is based on Cook, Loban, and Baxter: *Adventures in Appreciation*, New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1952.)

I. Reading Title Page and Table of Contents.

1. This book is divided into six major parts. Make a list of these six parts.
2. How many autobiographical sketches are there in the book?
3. Is the novel included in this anthology given in shortened form?

II. Using Context as an Aid to Word Meaning.

Match the words in Column A with the meanings in Column B by writing the appropriate numbers on the lines. There are three extra meanings.

A	B	C
....gratify	1. wish	....gratify
....caprice	2. change	....caprice
....satiation	3. appreciate	....satiation
....compensation	4. reward	....compensation
....sustenance	5. refuse	....sustenance
..grudge	6. satisfy	....grudge
....diversion	7. necessities of life	....diversion
	8. partition	
	9. give reluctantly	
	10. state of having too much	

Now turn to page 301 and read the two paragraphs which begin in the second column with the words "As for the unfortunate people . . ." All the words you have just tried to define are in these paragraphs. In Column C make a new list of meanings with the aid of the sentences in which the words appear. Do *not* make any changes in Column A.

III. Using a Glossary.

Find brief answers for the following questions in the glossary, pages 708–717.

1. Find the word *inter*. Write the word which is the key to the pronunciation of the *e* in *inter*.
2. Write any word you can think of which rhymes with the accented syllable in *epitomize*.
3. Write any word you can think of which starts with the same consonant sound as *choleric*.

IV. Reading to Recognize Mood.

A. Read the following lines and answer the questions. One-word answers may be given if the word is carefully chosen.

There was a sound of revelry by night,
And Belgium's Capital had gathered then
Her Beauty and her Chivalry, and bright
The lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men;
A thousand hearts beat happily; and when
Music arose with its voluptuous swell,

Soft eyes looked love to eyes which spake again,
And all went merry as a marriage bell;
But hush! hark! a deep sound strikes like a rising knell!
(From "The Eve of Waterloo," page 109)

1. What mood is suggested in the first eight lines?
2. What contrasting mood is suggested by the last line?

B. An essayist has written about things which Americans like to stand about and look at, among them street excavations. The following is one paragraph from his essay. Read it and answer the questions briefly.

"Excavation watchers, as a class, are very conscientious sportsmen. You very seldom catch them watching anything else when they are on an excavation job. Fire engines may go by in the street behind their backs, old ladies may faint over their very heels, and even a man with a sidewalk stand of bouncing dolls may take up his position on the curb across the street, but the cellar-hole boys stick to their post without so much as batting an eyelash. In fact, the eyelash-batting average of some of the old-timers has gone as low as .005 in a season."
(From "Sporting Life in America: Watching," page 361.)

1. Do you think the essayist is writing scientifically, humorously, or critically?
2. What are two details which made you decide on your answer to question 1?

V. Reading Figurative Language.

A. Read "Opportunity," page 200. Write one sentence in which you tell what message or idea about life the poet wanted the reader to get from this poem.

B. Read the poem at the top of page 214. With what does the poet compare the train?

VI. Reading for Main Ideas.

Read the first paragraph of "One Ranger: No Riot," page 276. In your own words state the main idea of this paragraph. Write just one sentence.

VII. Reading to See the Relationship of Details to Main Points.

A. Read the first paragraph of "Irtnog," page 366. Copy from the paragraph the words which state the main idea. You may not need to copy a whole sentence. List three of the illustrations of this main idea which the author gives in the paragraph.

B. Read the first paragraph of "One Life, One Country," page 256. Write one sentence in which you state the main point the author makes in this paragraph. List two facts which support this main idea.

VIII. Reading to Outline.

Read the introduction about George Eliot, pages 562–63. Note the main ideas and the details which the editor discusses. Make an outline which will include all the main points and some of the important details.

IX. Reading for Specific Details.

Read from "Many memories. . . .," page 300, to "To have reached . . . ," page 303. Answer the questions briefly.

1. What is the most important contribution which a hobby can make to a person's life?
2. Into what three classes does Churchill group all human beings?
3. Who are "fortune's favored children"?

X. Reading to Visualize.

Read the first two paragraphs of "Lead Her Like a Pigeon," page 106. Then close your book and write a description of what you saw in your imagination as you read. You may add details which the author does not give.

XI. Reading to Make Inferences.

Read the note before the poem "Old Christmas Morning," page 185. This is a story-poem. The characters are two women. Taulbe is a man. Now read the poem and answer these questions.

1. In what section of the country do the women live?
2. Copy the words which first show that Sally Ann Barton is suspicious and nervous.
3. What does Lomey Carter mean when she says, "I won't be stopping: Going a long ways still"?
4. Does Lomey seem nervous or calm? State a fact from the poem to prove your answer.
5. What words did Lomey's husband's ghost say to her?

Administering Informal Tests and Interpreting Results

To be most effective, informal tests should be given early in the year and used as a means of long-range planning. The administration should, however, be divided among several class periods with more interesting language experiences interspersed. Several consecutive days spent entirely in testing might create poor pupil attitudes.

SAMPLE CHART OF READING SKILLS

	Vocabulary Skills				*Speed*		*Comprehension*						*Locational Skills*			
Pupils' Names	Sight Vocabulary	Use of Phonetic Clues	Use of Context Clues for Meaning		Skimming	Adjusting Speed to Purpose		Reading for Specific Details	Reading for Main Ideas	Reading to Outline	Reading Figurative Language	Unaided Recall		Alphabetizing	Using Table of Contents	
John B.			√			√										
Helen S.	√		√ √							√	√	√ √			√	
Robert W.			√			√						√				

For ease in correcting papers and charting scores, each type of test should be answered on a separate piece of paper.

When you have the tests scored, a master chart should be made. The pupils' scores may be recorded as follows: (a) leave the space blank if, on his test, the pupil has demonstrated acceptable competence in a given skill; (b) use a single check mark if he is having some difficulty; and (c) use a double check if he is having extreme difficulty. This three-point system of checking is detailed enough for most purposes.

In the sample chart offered in this chapter only a few of the skills are indicated. Each teacher must construct a chart to fit her particular group. When read horizontally, the chart reveals the weaknesses of individual pupils. When read vertically, it indicates the competency of the class as a whole in any given skill. Thus you can see at a glance which skills need to be taught and the groupings you should make for each. If everyone in the class is weak in a given skill, whole-class instruction in that skill will be necessary.

Classroom Organization

Having taken inventory of the needs and abilities of pupils in your class, you are ready to plan instruction in such a way that the more skilled pupils may be freed from needless drill and the less skilled may be given opportunity to improve. The direction this planning takes depends partly on honest answers to some rather personal questions about you and your school. Are you ready to take a test yourself? Underline "yes" or "no."

Do you have or can you "find" at least a half hour a day which you can devote to planning *new* techniques and constructing exercises and other materials? yes no

Have *you* had any experience in sub-grouping within your classes? yes no

Have *your pupils* had any recent experience in working in an individualized or small-group program? yes no

Do you have or can you get enough printed materials of varying degrees of difficulty so that you will not have to construct too much new material yourself?	yes	no
Have you enough room and equipment for filing materials?	yes	no
Do you work under an administrator who gives you freedom of procedure in your classroom?	yes	no
Is your course of study flexible enough to allow modifications and innovations?	yes	no

A predominance of "noes" in this quiz means proceed with caution. Try your new techniques in only one class for a while. Plan brief units of instruction and return frequently to the traditional methods while you collect more equipment and more courage. When both you and your pupils have experienced the thrill of successful learning, you and they will embark on the next flight like veterans.

If new techniques are to be successful, your students must share the objectives of the program. They should see clearly the reasons for differentiation of the work. Talk over with them the results of their informal tests. Let them understand that people differ in reading skills as they do in height and weight and ability to play tennis. Be sure, too, that they see a need for applying the skills they are learning in all studies that involve reading. And all along the way they should watch their individual progress toward the objectives of the program. For smooth operation of the class, the pupils must

- — know where materials are kept and who is responsible for distributing them
- — understand how and where directions will be given
- — be prepared to find worthwhile independent activities for themselves if they finish assigned work early

Differentiation of instruction may take a number of different forms, some of which are most appropriate in skills teaching. Other techniques, such as interest grouping and the unit method, are more appropriate in other situations.

Two-group teaching:

This type of grouping grows directly out of the diagnostic chart of skills. For every skill tested you can make two major pupil groupings: those pupils who have a satisfactory mastery of the skill and those who do not. While you teach the group that needs drill in a particular skill, the other group is engaged in some other worthwhile activity, perhaps under the direction of a pupil leader. Many types of activity can be devised for the group not working directly with the teacher, for example:

- — library reading for pleasure
- — work on projects, such as preparation for a program
- — reading for a report
- — creative writing
- — vocabulary work

This two-group type of organization will be successful in proportion to the care with which you

- — give careful directions
- — train a pupil leader to distribute materials and carry out directions
- — require specific evidence, usually in writing, of progress of pupils who are working independently

One more hint — when you first try the two-group organization, work with a skill that most of the

class has *not* mastered. In this way your first independent work group will be small and will probably be made up of some of the brighter pupils who can best work independently. The larger group will still be under your immediate direction.

Multiple-group work:

The two-group plan is not a very dramatic solution to the problem of individual differences in reading skills, but it is a workable one. If you are successful with it, the temptation will be strong to move to multiple grouping. In the larger of the two groups, some pupils will master the skill more quickly than others, and you will want to split them off from the main group and give them different materials of instruction. The limitations of your materials and your energy in planning for varied groups will probably prevent you from letting this splitting process get out of hand. The organization is essentially the same as for two-group work. As the teacher, you concentrate on instructing one or two groups during each class hour. The other groups work with pupil leaders from carefully planned directions which you have prepared.

Job Sheets:

Almost completely individualized instruction in reading skills can be carried out with the use of job sheets. A well-planned filing system is essential to the smooth operation of this plan. The preparatory steps are as follows:

— Collect or construct exercises in the various skills. The series of exercises for each skill should represent varying degrees of difficulty.
— Paste copies of the exercises on sheets of oak tag of uniform size. It is best to have two or three copies of each, so that more than one pupil may work on the same exercise at the same time.
— Label each sheet as to type of exercise.
— Number the sheets within each type in order of difficulty.
— Provide answer keys on the back of each oak tag sheet.
— Study each pupil's diagnostic test record.
— List by name and number the exercises which each pupil is to do.
— Give each pupil his own personal list.
— Instruct the pupils in the filing system so that they can find their own materials and return them to the proper place.
— Prepare a series of mastery tests which the student may take after he has done a given series of exercises.

As the pupil finds time in class or after school, he works individually on the skills in which he is weakest, proceeding through the various levels of difficulty and keeping a record of his own progress. When he is ready, he takes a mastery test which you administer and score.

Job sheets are particularly useful in developing the more mechanical skills, such as word analysis techniques, finding main ideas, and following the author's sequence. They are not so effective with higher reading skills, such as distinguishing between fact and opinion, where group discussion is essential to growth in skill.

Job Sheet

Scientists and engineers believe that within twenty years atomic energy will do the work now being done by coal, oil, and water power. But before their dream can become a reality several problems connected with the peacetime use of atomic energy must be solved. The first obstacle to be overcome is the high cost of producing atomic power. Although uranium, the basic material from which atomic energy is derived, exists in fairly large quantities, refining it is extremely difficult. Therefore, a pound lump of uranium the size of a penny matchbox costs fifty dollars, compared with steel at a few pennies a pound. Uranium in its natural state cannot produce power. But in it is a mixture of two kinds of atoms, one of which, U-235, is capable of starting a chain reaction and thus producing power. The two kinds of atoms are mixed up together, with one atom of U-235 for 140 atoms of the other type. In separating U-235 from the rest of the atoms, at least 140 one-pound blocks of uranium must be used to get one pound of U-235. The process of sifting U-235 from the rest of the atoms must be carried on in huge plants like the one at Oak Ridge. The cost of such "sifters" or nuclear reactors, as they are called, runs to twenty-five million dollars.

Even if the cost of atomic energy could be reduced, problems involved in its use would still remain. For one thing, a pound lump of U-235 would produce nothing at all. To start a chain reaction, the neutrons flying out of the center of U-235 atoms must connect with the centers of other atoms. In a small lump, the neutrons miss connections and escape through the surface of the lump. It is estimated that the size necessary for starting a chain reaction would be nearer that of a basketball than of a penny matchbox. And the chain reaction that could be produced then would cause such intense radiation that heavy shielding would be necessary. So far, all reactors have been shielded in six-foot-thick layers of concrete to protect workers from fatal radiation.

For this reason the prospect of using atomic energy in automobiles seems pretty remote. As the size of airplanes increases, however, it is possible to think of atomically-powered aircraft. The first automatically-powered vehicle will undoubtedly be the submarine. The use of atomic energy in submarines is practical for several reasons. In the first place, a little of this fuel would go a long way. Probably a lump the size of a matchbox would not be consumed in fueling a submarine around the world. Secondly, the storage area for fuel reserves would be so small that much more space could be given to munitions and living quarters. And, of course, the speed as well as the range of the submarine would be increased dramatically.

Directions: Read this article carefully. Copy the partial outline and complete it. Do not add any items. When you have finished, check your outline with the key on the reverse of this folder.

Title .....

I. Reasons for the high cost of producing atomic energy
- A. .....
- B. .....
- C. .....

II. .....
- A. Large amount needed
- B. Heavy shielding necessary

III. .....
- A. .....
- B. .....
- C. .....
  1. .....
  2. .....
  3. .....

Paired Practice:

This method is especially useful for strengthening recall. Each pupil takes a partner who has about the same degree of speed and comprehension as he. One of the pair is provided with a paragraph or longer unit to read and study. His partner has a checklist of facts from the paragraph. After the pupil has finished studying, he tells his partner as much of the selection as he can remember, while the other keeps score with the help of the checklist. In a class where three levels of ability have been identified, six sets of exercises may be duplicated. Then each pair of students within a group may work on the same two exercises during one practice period. Or, a

Recall Card

Marie Curie was perhaps the least selfish scientist who ever lived. For four years she toiled in a shed that could not be properly heated nor protected from the rain and wind. The physical labor she performed under these trying conditions would have been exhausting for the most robust workman. The shed with its crude stove and kitchen tables was donated to the Curies by the School of Medicine at the Sorbonne. All other equipment, including the pitchblende from which the Curies hoped to extract radium, they had to find for themselves. Although the Austrian government donated a ton of waste pitchblende, the Curies had to pay for shipping it from Austria to Paris. Day after day, Marie treated tons of pitchblende until in 1902, forty-five months after the experiment began, she succeeded in preparing a decigram of pure radium. Instead of patenting the process for extracting radium, the Curies gave it freely to the whole world.

Scorer's Check List

Directions to Scorer: Make a check mark beside every point made. Value of points is given in parentheses. Count up check marks and multiply by point value. Give credit when idea is similar. Do not expect exact wording.

Main Idea: Madam Curie was least selfish scientist who ever lived. (5 points)

Supporting Details: (one point each)

.....She worked like a day laborer
.....for four years
.....in a shed.
.....The shed was donated by the Faculty of Medicine
.....of the Sorbonne.
.....Its only equipment was a crude stove
.....and kitchen tables.
.....The Curies had to furnish their own equipment.
.....The Austrian government donated some used pitchblende.
.....The Curies paid the freight charges.
.....She used tons of pitchblende.
.....It took 45 months
.....to extract a decigram of radium.
.....The Curies gave the radium-extraction process freely to the world.

set of ten or twenty different recall cards may be prepared for each group. The cards can be rotated until the pupils have done all the exercises which are of appropriate difficulty for them. Some pupils may move up to the next level of difficulty and begin to work on this series. Clippings from newspapers, magazines, and workbooks will serve as text for recall cards, but you will have to prepare the checklists yourself since no published material of this kind is available.

Three Final Queries

How often? Some teachers prefer to work on reading skills one or two days a week throughout the year with the rest of the time given to other aspects of the English program. Others prefer a concentrated "unit" on skills, an all-out effort for a few weeks.

How much? Will you agree that no pupil does really well in English or any other academic subject without a reasonable mastery of fundamental reading skills? If so, you may wish to consider whether you can save some time elsewhere in your program in order to give added attention to a problem as crucial as this. It is a matter of proportion, and the proportion varies from class to class. Non-college students, for example, will use reading skills much more than writing skills in out-of-school life.

How well? Evaluation of skills teaching must be continuous and systematic. Only by knowing at frequent intervals what progress is being made by individual pupils can the teacher continue to guide and motivate the program. Detailed discussion of evaluation procedures is

beyond the scope of this chapter. In general, progress is measured in the following ways:

— improved pupil morale and interest because the pupil sees specific goals
— gains in scores on informal tests of the same general type as those used in the pretesting
— improvement of work in other phases of the language arts program and in other subjects
— gains in standardized tests

Selected List of Standardized Reading Tests

For Junior High

Metropolitan Achievement Tests (Reading). Range: Int., 5–6; Adv., 7–9.5. Working time: 45 minutes. Measures vocabulary and rate of comprehension. Well-constructed thought questions on paragraphs measuring comprehension. Widely used in junior high school. (World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.)

Gates Reading Survey for Grades 3 to 10. Working time: usually two class periods. Measures vocabulary, power of comprehension, speed and accuracy of reading. One of the best survey tests for junior high school. (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University)

Iowa Every-Pupil Test of Basic Skills. Test A. Silent Reading Comprehension. Test B. Work Study Skills. Range: Adv., 6–8. Working time: Test A, 67 minutes; Test B, 78 minutes. Test A measures paragraph comprehension, understanding details, organization of ideas, and grasp of total meaning. Test B measures map reading, use of references, use of index and dictionary, and reading of graphs, charts, and tables. (Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street, Boston)

Stanford Achievement Test: Reading. (Adv.) Range: 7–9. Working time: 30 minutes. Measures paragraph meaning and word meaning. One of the most widely used in junior high. Good survey test. (World Book Company)

For Junior and Senior High

Iowa Silent Reading Tests. Range: Elem., 4–8; Adv., 9–13. Working time: 49 and 45 minutes. Measures rate of comprehension, directed reading, word meaning, paragraph comprehension, sentence meaning, ability to alphabetize, and ability to use index. Subtests give some diagnostic information, but their limited scope diminishes reliability of subtest scores. Well standardized. (World Book Company)

California Reading Test. Range: Int., 7–9; Adv., 9–14. Working time: 50 and 55 minutes. Measures vocabulary, following directions, organization, and interpretation of meaning. Profile of test results affords some diagnostic information. (California Test Bureau, 5916 Hollywood Blvd., Los Angeles 28)

Cooperative Reading Comprehension Tests. Range: Test C-1 for 7–12; Test C-2 for superior 11th and 12th and college. Working time: 40 minutes. Tests vocabulary, speed of comprehension, level of comprehension. Measures some of the higher reading skills better than most of the other survey tests now available. (Cooperative Test Division, 20 Nassau Street, Princeton, N. J.)

Schrammel-Gray High School and College Reading Test. Range: 7–13. Working time: 25 minutes. Yields scores for reading rate, general reading comprehension, and comprehension efficiency. Consists of 25 paragraphs followed by true-false statements. A good survey test. (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois)

Cooperative Literary Comprehension and Appreciation Test. Range: 10–12 and college. Working time: 40 minutes. Attempts to measure literary appreciation by testing grasp of content, perception of author's viewpoint, recognition of literary devices, and appreciation of style and rhythm. Probably the best measure in an area where no truly successful measure has been devised. (Cooperative Test Division)

Recently Published Tests

Gilmore Oral Reading Test. Range: 1–8. Working time: Varies; probably 15 to 20 minutes. Measures accuracy of oral reading, comprehension of material read, and rate of reading. Each form, A and B, comprises ten reading paragraphs that form a continuous story. Pupil reads only those paragraphs which are within his reading range. Examiner checks substitutions, mispronunciations, words pronounced by examiner, disregard of punctuation, insertions, hesitations, repetitions, and omissions. Since it requires individual testing, this test is of practical value to remedial teachers in the diagnosis of obviously handicapped readers. (World Book Company, 1951)

Durost-Center Word Mastery Test. Range: 9–12. Working time: Two class periods. Measures general vocabulary level and the extent to which students can learn meanings of unknown words from context. Part 1 is a 100-word multiple-choice vocabulary test. Several days later students take Part 2, which presents the same words in meaningful sentences. Pupils choose definitions from among the same choices used in Part 1. Comparison of the two test scores provides a measure of ability to learn meanings from context. (World Book Company, 1952)

Kelley-Greene Reading Comprehension Test. Range: 9–13. Working time: 73 minutes. In three parts, this test measures comprehension, directed reading, and retention of details. Since each part is timed, it also provides a measure of speed of reading. Most useful for survey purposes among upperclassmen. (World Book Company, 1953)

Spitzer Study Skills Test. Range: 9–13. Working time: two class periods. Measures basic work-study skills: using dictionary, using index; knowledge of sources of information; reading graphs, maps, and tables; organization in notes. (World Book Company, 1954)

Selected List of Teaching Materials

Atlantic Guide to Better Reading Skills. Boston, Mass. Based on and published by the *Atlantic Monthly.* Volume I, No. 1, September, 1951, to the present. Exercises are of three broad types: vocabulary, study skills, and rapid reading. Much very useful material for college preparatory groups in high school or for college students.

Bailey, Matilda and Ullin W. Leavell, *Mastery of Reading.* New York: American Book Company, 1951. Each book contains reading selections with special exercises to develop comprehension, speed, vocabulary, problem-solving, and organization. Material well chosen. Emphasis on literary materials. Grades 7–9.

Center, Stella S. and Gladys L. Persons, *Experiences in Reading and Thinking, Practices in Reading and Thinking, Problems in Reading and Thinking* (with workbooks). New York: Macmillan Co., 1940. The materials are based on the viewpoint that training in reading should be training in thinking. The difficulty of materials is especially appropriate for senior high school pupils who are not seriously retarded in reading.

Feigenbaum, Lawrence H., *Effective Reading.* New York: Globe Book Co., 1953. Designed as a remedial reading text, primarily for high schools. Reading selections tend to be short, and 3rd to 6th grade in difficulty. Good vocabulary work is included, such as lessons on the vocabulary of arithmetic.

Gainsburg, J. C. and S. I. Spector, *Better Reading.* New York: Globe Book Co., 1952. Planned for junior high school level to teach the skills of skimming, finding central thought, making inferences, outlining and organizing, and reading with a purpose.

Hovious, Carol, *Flying the Printways.* Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1938. This book covers many of the important skills, such as main ideas, reading for details, skimming, etc. Materials are very interesting to boys and girls, Grades 7–10, depending on the class.

Hovious, Carol, *Following Printed Trails.* Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1936. A widely used textbook in reading for the high school. Short selections, many of which relate to science. The materials are organized so as to give practice in the basic reading skills. Grades 11–12.

Hovious, Carol and Elga M. Shearer, *Wings for Reading.* Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1952. About sixth grade difficulty. Study questions are provided. Good science and social studies material.

Gray, William S., Gwen Horsman, and Marion Monroe, *Basic Reading Skills for High School Use.* Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1948. A workbook which provides exercises on: word meaning, phonetic analysis, structural analysis, the dictionary, and thoughtful interpretation. Good for reviewing basic skills in remedial classes.

Knight, Pearle E. and Arthur E. Traxler, *Read and Comprehend,* Revised. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1949. Exercises in speed, skimming, use of dictionary, newspaper reading, and critical reading. Good material of interest to pupils. Suitable for grades 10–12.

Murphy, George, *et al, Let's Read!,* Books 1, 2, 3, 4. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1953. A series of four books designed for junior and senior high school. The material is carefully selected and graded for reading difficulty. Vocabulary, getting main ideas, making associations, and using new ideas are stressed. Material of high interest.

Neal, Elma A., and Inez Foster, *Study Exercises for Developing Reading Skills.* Chicago: Laidlaw Brothers, 1953. Books A, B, C. One-page exercises, designed for developmental reading program. For use in intermediate grades and junior high school. Practice in a variety of skills.

Reader's Digest Reading Skills Builders. New York: The Reader's Digest Educational Service, Inc., 353 Fourth Avenue. A series of 4 books, each with two parts. They are designed for readers of 3rd, 4th, 5th and 6th grade reading ability but with more mature interests. Similar in format and material to *Reader's Digest.* Comprehension and vocabulary exercises.

Ryan, Nellie F., *Your Reading Guide.* Chicago: Lyons & Carnahan, 1945. Books I and II. Designed for use in the junior high school. Material on reading rate; skimming; vocabulary; looking for information; using maps, graphs, tables, and illustrations; following the author's plan; getting the meaning; and reading problems in arithmetic, science, etc.

Salisbury, Rachel, *Better Work Habits.* New York: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1932. A workbook planned for the development of study skills in high school. Detailed practice exercises are presented. May be used with

high school seniors as a review in preparation for college study. Especially strong in organizational skills.

Spencer, P. R. *et al.*, *Finding New Trails, Exploring New Trails, Traveling New Trails, Driving the Reading Road, Progress on Reading Roads.* New York: Lyons and Carnahan, 1945. The materials have been well selected and organized. This graded series of books is designed to improve speed and comprehension in reading as well as develop such specific reading abilities as locating information, organizing materials, problem solving, studying special subject matter, etc. The series starts at the 4th grade level.

Strang, Ruth, *Study Type of Reading Exercises.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935. This is a book designed to give: (1) information about reading and study methods, (2) practice in accuracy of comprehension and in speed, (3) supplementary exercises. Exercises provide good material for discussion as well as for practice. Grades 10–12.

Witty, Paul, *How to Become a Better Reader.* Chicago, Ill.: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1953. One of the best of the "self-help" books. Twenty lessons on various aspects of reading, with short selections in each chapter, and at back of book longer selections for speed drill. Comprehension questions and vocabulary drills are provided. Useful at either senior high school or college level.

Chapter II — Uses of Reading

SIX FUNDAMENTAL QUESTIONS should be considered in building a good program of extended reading for students in junior and senior high school. The questions are these:

1. What needs and interests of pupils can be used to promote extended reading?
2. How can we provide the books which will meet these needs and capitalize on these interests?
3. What kinds of activities will make pupils feel that reading does have many uses?
4. What attitudes and understandings must the teacher herself have?
5. In what kind of classroom does a program of this sort develop?
6. By what means can the pupils' reading be evaluated?

In an age when many attractions, many interests and duties compete for our students' time, we have to demonstrate the *usefulness* of reading if we are to convince them that reading is a worthwhile choice among many activities. This concept is not so utilitarian as it sounds. *Usefulness* may be broadly interpreted. For some people, the usefulness of reading still lies in its aesthetic value. Through the pages of a book they learn that "beauty is truth," and that is all they care to know. There are others who find release in the controlled daydreaming of the adventure story or romance. And this is not an unwholesome use of reading. In a tension-filled world it may be essential.

Help Students to Realize Their Interests

We English teachers need to face the fact, however, that most teenagers are too young for detailed study of the aesthetics of literature and that many of them do not want to read books for escape. Most of them love the excitement of real life far too much; if they need escape, movies and television provide more vivid means than reading. The approach to reading which has the strongest appeal for high school youth — particularly for those who are usually enrolled in "general" courses — is through reading for information,

particularly if they recognize the information as valuable to themselves personally.

Many studies have been made of the interests of high school youth. We are familiar with the junior high enthusiasms for animals and adventure stories and the early preferences of girls for real life stories of family and home. The important point, however, is that each teacher know about the individual interests of the pupils in the classes with whom he is working. Although adolescent interests shift rapidly and often change their shape before our eyes, still they are the clay with which we must work. The fact that they often do change rapidly is a sign of maturing attitudes. In this case change usually means growth.

There are a variety of ways in which we can discover interests. Undoubtedly repeated personal contacts with a pupil are the best means, but we often have to use other less time-consuming methods. For example:

- the standardized interest inventory, such as the *Kuder Preference Record* (Science Research Associates, Chicago)
- written or oral compositions in which students stress their own preferences and aspirations. Suggested topics or problems:
  - "If an author were to write a book just for me, I would ask him to write —"
  - "If I had three wishes —"
  - "Things which bother me —"
- use of reading-autobiographies
- projects in which students conduct interviews with each other and write about their partners instead of about themselves

It is not enough that teachers identify students' existing interests. Often we must broaden limited interests or intensify the scattered interests of students who spread their energies too thin. For the bored and restless adolescent, who seems almost without interests, we must open doorways to activities that satisfy some of the basic needs of youth. The act of exploration, as described above, may itself awaken dormant interests. In a classroom where enthusiasm for wide reading is energetically promoted, the contagion is likely to infect even the most blasé students.

Find Books that Interest Them

Providing the right books involves problems both of selection and of procurement. For most teachers, the best way to become acquainted with large numbers of books for adolescents is to take a course in books for young people or to participate in a workshop in which a special study is made of this problem. We say we will surely read these books for ourselves in our "free" time, or at least we will read the reviews, but most of us never get around to doing it. If we actually do have any free time, the temptation is too strong to read things we ourselves enjoy, and we neglect the volumes of science fiction, the handbooks on mechanics, the sports stories which are written especially for teen-agers. We don't really know what is in those books. It takes time and energy and probably some kind of external pressure (such as the requirements of a professional course) to get us to lay the foundation of information which is essential if a teacher is to guide the reading of high school students. Once the

foundation is laid, it is not a great chore to keep up with the new books as they come from the press.

There are some useful aids to book selection, the best of which are the carefully annotated booklists which have been published. These lists, however, have their limitations, the chief of which is that most of them include only materials of considerable literary merit and disregard thousands of worthwhile books and pamphlets which are filled with useful and authentic information. Magazine literature is almost wholly neglected in any published lists. The pamphlets printed and usually distributed free by manufacturers are practically unknown in many schools. Yet it is with materials of this sort that the uses of reading are most easily taught to many boys and girls.

Many schools are very poorly equipped to teach the practical uses of reading. It has been claimed that the most important single factor in developing enthusiasm for reading is the presence of plenty of interesting, varied materials. In comparison with the costs of most other items in the school budget, books are cheap. A well-supplied central library with plenty of material which circulates in the classrooms themselves should be one of the main features of every school. The lack of such a library is a sign that in that particular school single textbook teaching still predominates and varied uses of reading are not being taught.

For the individual teacher who seeks, in spite of a discouraging lack of books within the school, to broaden and enrich his teaching there are some sources available outside the school itself. Some of those commonly used are:

— the local public library, which is usually glad to coöperate with the individual teacher who wants a supply of books for his own room

— the state library, usually a branch of the state department of education. This library is generally most interested in helping the smaller school or the school which is in a locality where public library facilities are limited. Often a state librarian is available for the asking to work with a teacher or group of teachers on their problems.

— parent groups willing to raise money for library materials

— sources of free and inexpensive materials. A booklet, *Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials* is published by the Division of Surveys and Field Services, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

Create a Reading Atmosphere

The kind of classroom where interest in reading is best promoted is a pleasant place — bright, cheerful, clean, attractively decorated, informal in atmosphere. Whether it is an English classroom or a corner in the homemaking laboratory, some of the same equipment will be present: bookshelves, at least one library table, bulletin boards, filing space, and, of course, plenty of attractive books. The books will usually not be a permanent collection; they will be changed as the activities and purposes of the classes change. Even a dull, formal classroom can be transformed at small expense by an enthusiastic teacher. It has been done many times, but many more teachers need to understand that atmosphere does make a difference — a big differ-

ence. If administrative help is completely denied, the following steps cost little and pay well:

— Have pupils bring magazines from home. A committee should screen the contributions and keep the collection in order. Have only a few in use and change them frequently. As soon as they become soiled, look through them for articles of permanent worth. Save these and throw the rest of the magazine away.
— Mount magazine articles in oak tag folders and file under appropriate headings. An extensive collection of worthwhile materials can be built in a year's time.
— Use paper cartons with the tops cut out for filing boxes. You can find some which exactly fit the standard filing folders. Have pupils decorate the boxes to make them attractive.
— If you haven't enough bulletin board space, make more. Old window screens are excellent frames for a piece of tackboard or even heavy cardboard. Burlap or flannel stretched across a frame will support pictures, book jackets, or students' papers.
— Buy or have built shelves and a table for books and magazines. A secondhand furniture shop has old tables and bookcases which can be made attractive with a coat of paint.
— Write to publishers or visit bookstores to ask for extra or discarded book jackets for bulletin board displays.
— Borrow exhibits or pictures from museums or libraries.
— Encourage the "artists" in your classes to make posters.

Give Them a Reason for Reading

Best-seller lists indicate the ways in which adults use books to enrich their experiences. They read before traveling, before meeting people, before taking up a new sport or hobby. They read to improve their vocational or professional efficiency, to extend their knowledge of current affairs, to "win friends and influence people," to find "peace of mind" or to "look younger and live longer." They read to become better parents, wiser consumers, better gardeners, better amateur photographers, more expert golfers. They find that reading increases the pleasure they can derive from all kinds of entertainment. They have learned that reading and "doing" complement each other; activities are enriched by correlated reading, and reading itself takes on new meanings from actual experiences.

Many of these uses of reading may be introduced to junior and senior high school pupils. In doing so, we serve one important goal of the total reading program: helping children to realize the immediate usefulness of many kinds of reading. The use of reading for practical purposes may appeal strongly to pupils, particularly boys at the junior high level, who shy away from books as a form of recreation or aesthetic enjoyment. Giving these pupils a reason for reading different from, and in addition to, the aesthetic appreciations which are the goal of the planned literature program may develop in them a respect for reading that will grow, rather than diminish, in adult life. What kinds of activities will make pupils feel that reading does have many uses? A few are suggested here:

1. *Before Taking a Trip.* Some teachers take advantage of the class trips that are end-of-the-season activities in many schools. A few weeks

ahead of time they direct pupils to sources of information about the site they are to visit. Pupils may investigate the encyclopedias for general background, look into the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* for leads to possible articles in *Holiday* and the *National Geographic*, and write to the chamber of commerce for pamphlets and brochures. The teacher or pupils prepare short booklists on interests that may be awakened by the trip. For example, a trip to Nantucket suggests booklists on the sea, ships, fishing, early industries, colonial furniture and architecture, as well as novels with New England seafaring backgrounds.

In many English classes field trips are planned to enrich literature. Why not reverse the process, plan the trip first on the basis of pupil interests, and let reading enrich the trip? Visits to an automobile assembly plant, a radio or television studio, a shipyard, a food-processing plant, a farm, or to special exhibits prepared by department stores, manufacturers, and other groups suggest opportunities for purposeful reading. Such reading need not be exhaustive or "heavy." Much of it may be found in pamphlets published by manufacturing companies, in magazine articles and reference books, and in semi-technical books written for young readers. With interest awakened ahead of time, youngsters are prepared to ask pertinent questions, to relate new experiences to what they already know, and to appreciate more fully a process, a product, or an exhibit.

2. *Before an Assembly.* English teachers can do something about the long, embarrassing pauses that sometimes follow when an assembly speaker offers to answer questions from the audience. At the same time they can illustrate an excellent reason for reading: knowing something about an expert's field before meeting him. One teacher learned that next week's assembly program was to feature a group of foreign students from a near-by university. He read the list of speakers to his class: a student from Peru, one from India, another from Israel, one from Norway, one from England. Here was a chance to acquire direct information through immediate personal contact. The class tried to draw up a list of possible questions they might ask the visitors; the list was short and the questions far too general to challenge the speakers. To ask intelligent questions, the pupils needed to know something about Peru, India, Israel, Norway, and England. They turned to the reference books. Brief reports in encyclopedias were suggestive; soon the students had lists of questions to ask each guest. After the assembly there was more reading on the part of individual students who had been stimulated by the speakers.

3. *Classroom Visitors.* Another illustration of the values of reading before meeting an interesting personality may be created by inviting guests to the classroom. These visitors may be invited to speak to the class, to take part in panel discussions, or simply to serve as a receptive audience for reports on a topic on which they, like the pupils, are "authorities." An average community offers dozens of interesting personalities who are well informed on subjects that interest children and who would be willing to visit the classrooms in one of the capacities

suggested. The classroom visitor need not be a Very Important Person. He may be, for example, a Korean veteran, a foreign-born citizen, a craftsman, a traveler, anyone with an interesting hobby or specialty. Again, through reading, pupils become acquainted with the visitor's interests and prepare themselves to talk intelligently with him.

4. *Films.* A use of reading similar to those described above may be developed in connection with documentary films that can substitute for field trips. Similar techniques correlating reading with the activity are involved. Pupils can learn much of value from films if readiness is developed through well-directed, purposeful reading and discussion preceding the showing and following it.

5. *Current Affairs.* Short bibliographies that provide background for the news may be posted on the bulletin board. These bibliographies should refer to books within the range of student abilities and very often to magazine articles that have been clipped and mounted. For example, the round-the-world-trip of Queen Elizabeth stimulated reading from the following list: *The Little Princesses*, Crawford (Harcourt, Brace, 1950); *The Seven Queens of England*, Trease (Vanguard Press, 1953); *Elizabeth Enters*, Johnston (Scribner's, 1953); *The Coronation Book, the Complete Story in History and Legend*, Wibberley (Cudahy and Pellegrini, 1953); Portrait, *Time*, Nov. 10, 1952; "World's Busiest Mother," *Saturday Evening Post*, November 8, 1952. Some pupils were persuaded to follow the royal itinerary, reading books and magazine articles about the countries visited.

Especially for her air-minded seventh-grade boys, one teacher posted on her bulletin board a newspaper clipping headlined: "Man's Fastest Flight Yet: Twice the Speed of Sound." To the clipping she attached the following reading list:

Young People's Book of Jet Propulsion by Frank Ross, Jr. (Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, 1950)

The First Book of Airplanes by Jeanne Bendick (Franklin Watts, Inc., 1952)

Flying Windmills, the Story of the Helicopter by Frank Ross, Jr. (Lothrop, Lee and Shepard, 1953)

Aviation from the Ground Up by John Floherty (Lippincott, 1950)

Your Trip into Space by Lynn Poole (McGraw-Hill, 1953)

"Uncle Igor and the Chinese Top," *Time*, Nov. 16, 1953

"Eight-Mile-High Jump," by Vincent Mazza, *Popular Mechanics*, January, 1951.

President Eisenhower's illness, speculation about the increasing threat of hurricanes to New England, the annual crop of automobile models, Churchill's retirement suggest the kind of news items for which correlated reading can be provided.

6. *Hobbies.* A hobby show may display both what students have made or collected and the books and magazines that relate to their collection or craft. The encouragement of individual reading along hobby lines may go on throughout the wide reading program. Post notes to individual pupils on the bulletin board: "John, have you *The Road Is Yours* by Cleveland and Williamson? It's a history of the automobile from the horseless buggy to the Rocket 88. Fifty pages of pictures, too!" Simply written, well-illustrated hobby books are appearing in large numbers.

7. *Reading around Sports.* English teachers who don't know a Louisville slugger from a mashie can join

their pupils in demonstrating this use of reading. Pupils may read and review books that will widen their teachers' acquaintance with sports. Popular units in the junior high center around the history of sports, or around one of the baseball leagues, or sports in various countries, or seasonal sports, or sports personalities. An excellent unit on sports, "Signal Calls," is issued by the Division of Instruction of the Austin (Texas) Public Schools.

To show students that books can be substitute teachers in acquiring a new skill, pupils may read an instructional book on a sport that is new to them and then demonstrate to the class (so far as possible) the techniques or skills they have learned. As one indication of the availability of books on sports, A. S. Barnes (101 Fifth Avenue, New York 3) publishes books in fifty different sports fields.

8. *Reading Specialties.* The difference between individual reading specialties and reading as an outgrowth of interest in hobbies and sports is that the former type implies an almost wholly intellectual pursuit. Superior students may become interested in reading intensively about certain ideas or subjects. If these subjects relate to arithmetic, science, history, or art, teachers in these content areas may do a better job than the English teacher in guiding selection of books. However, the English teacher often provides the first stimulus for selecting a reading specialty and should, of course, be able to develop reading interests growing out of his own field. The following types of reading specialties are particularly pertinent in the English class:

— reading all the important works of one author. He may be Armstrong Sperry or Howard Pease as well as Rudyard Kipling.
— reading special types of literature (short stories, plays, science fiction)
— reading all about one person or a group of persons
— reading all one can find about some particular place or country
— reading literature related to one period of history, such as stories of the American Revolution

Students who become "experts" in any field should be given many opportunities to share their special knowledge with other members of the class. They should also realize that being expert in only one area may make them complete neophytes in every other field.

9. *Reading before Buying.* This use of reading may be demonstrated in other classes better than in English classes, but if the classroom library is well stocked with "useful" books (handyman's guides, books on gardening, cooking, dressmaking, carpentry, photography, etc.) and with magazines, manufacturers' pamphlets, and catalogs from mail order houses, students may spend some time in the free-reading or "browsing" periods acquiring information about articles they or their families intend to buy. Catalogs, shoppers' guides, advertisements, and labels are useful materials for skills instruction, too, and from the use of such materials attitudes of careful reading-before-buying may be developed.

10. *Reading for Others.* Older girls may be invited to read and evaluate children's literature in order to increase their stock-in-trade as baby-

sitters. Given this purpose, slow learners may be led to read easy children's books that they might otherwise scorn as too childish. Arranging for groups or individuals to read to children in kindergarten and primary grades or at a library story hour is another way of making this type of reading immediately useful. The long-range goal of acquainting future mothers with some of the delightful picture-and-story books published for children is another worthwhile objective.

Other motivational devices based on reading for others include the preparation of summer or Christmas booklists, planning book programs, and making recommendations for the purchase of books for the classroom or school library. In preparing booklists, the class may agree that no book is to be recommended unless a certain number of pupils have read and approved it. A special book program planned for the spring can be the objective toward which the class reads for several months. A program of this kind is enlivened by exhibits of projects, dramatizations of scenes from books, and displays of new books, each with a card attached on which some pupil has written a worthwhile comment. A "Bazaar Kit" including a handbook, sample book jackets, radio script, and streamer may be purchased from Division Book Bazaar, *Scholastic Teacher*, 351 Fourth Avenue, New York 10.

11. *Mass Media.* In some classes rotating committees keep their classmates informed of what outstanding programs are to be presented on television or radio, what good movies are coming, what is "current and choice" in the popular magazines. These committees read the radio and television digests, the week's programs in the Sunday papers, and reviews of programs, movies, and books. They scan the magazines for articles related to ongoing class projects and for short stories that may appeal to their classmates. They are particularly interested in noting new movies and television programs based on books and in suggesting that their classmates read these books before or after seeing the film or telecast.

12. *Reading around Careers.* Teachers have long used units on careers both to stimulate reading and to provide vocational orientation. Pupils are ready to read widely in the many career books published every year. In addition to fictionalized treatments of various occupations, many publishers offer easy semi-technical books in fields like television, electronics, aviation, transportation, engineering, agriculture, and chemistry. In the eleventh and twelfth grades of terminal classes, students who have made fairly definite vocational choices may be introduced to some of the many technical magazines and trade journals. Some of these, like *Editor and Printer*, *Radio and Television*, and *Aviation Week*, may be found in the public libraries; others may be supplied on request by business and industry. The house organs of local firms are good choices for the library table in senior classes.

13. *Reading for Personal Development.* Adolescents' concern with their personal appearance and their desire for popularity provide strong motivation for reading for personal development. Boys and girls in their early teens want to know how to make friends, how to get ahead in

school, what to wear, how to behave in social situations, how to get along with their family. Pupil bibliographies for units built around these problems may include books like *Your Manners Are Showing*, Betz (Grosset, 1946); *Smarter and Smoother*, Daly (Dodd, Mead, 1944); *How to Be Happy Though Young*, Lawton (Vanguard, 1949); *Ways to Improve Your Personality*, Bailard and Strang (Whittlesey, 1951); *Tips to Teens*, Williams (Waverly, 1948); and pamphlets like these from the *Life Adjustment* series (Science Research Associates, Chicago): "Getting Along with Brothers and Sisters," "How to Live with Parents," and "What Are Your Problems?" As a result of this reading, pupils may prepare a class notebook on etiquette, socio-dramas, bulletin board displays, panels and quiz programs.

Let Literature Speak to Them

The reading of imaginative literature, as opposed to reading for information, deserves a section to itself. Because literature extends our knowledge of human nature and the world we live in, most students, even slow learners, should read materials of genuine literary value provided that they are selected well. It doesn't matter who wrote it or when so long as the book has something to say to young people today. If students can be shown that books supply some of the answers to their very real problems, they may become not only more interested readers but more understanding persons.

What are some of their problems? Certainly older boys and girls want answers to questions such as these: What should I do with my life? Why can't I get along with my father? How can I be attractive to others? Is there a personal God? Why must we have war? What would happen if I, a Christian, were to marry a Jew?

Literature has answers to all of these questions. Maureen Daly's *Seventeenth Summer* tells how it feels to love and lose when you are seventeen, and adults who have studied psychology and observed young people know that it is a very true book, one that would serve very well to help young people understand themselves, even if it is not "great literature." William Maxwell's *The Folded Leaf* is a perceptive novel of two boys groping for maturity in very different ways and of the crisis which racks their friendship when both fall in love with the same girl. Maugham's *Of Human Bondage*, Tunis's *All-American*, Marquand's *Point of No Return*, O'Neill's *Beyond the Horizon*, Marjorie Rawlings' *The Yearling*, and many, many other books of varying degrees of reading difficulty and emotional depth have messages for young people. Tolerance of others' weaknesses grows prodigiously in classroom experiences with life reflected on a printed page. There are many things which children cannot and should not learn by direct experience, and no part of the school curriculum has a more important role to play in life adjustment than the literature program.

Important though this idea may be, not every piece of literature needs to add to the pupil's vicarious experience and hence to his life adjustment. The other great contribution of literature to young people, which, to be sure, is not separate from the first, is the great and lasting pleasure which it can give. He who goes through life without discovering the fun of

books is to be pitied. Since such large numbers of homes have abdicated in these days their rights as the source for children's pleasure in literature, it is up to the school to provide a literature program which will take the place of what used to be done in many homes.

Is the school successful in taking the place of the home in this matter of fostering a love for good literature? Personal experience, studies of library circulation, and research in adult reading interests tell us that very few people, after they leave school, go on reading the kind of literature recommended in high school and for which we have supposedly been building a taste. Part of the reason why our successes are few is that we give pupils too little opportunity to choose for themselves.

Narrowly restricted booklists naturally give the student the idea that there are two kinds of literature: that which is acceptable in school and that which he can read on his own. There is a tendency to think adversely of that which is prescribed, even though it may contain much that is interesting, and to prefer that which is chosen freely. What if some pupil chooses a trashy novel or a silly story? If this happens, either of two circumstances may prevail: (1) he is at a low level in his appreciation of literature, in which case the teacher will have to be resigned momentarily to the situation, for there is nothing to be gained by trying to get a pupil to leap all at once from the bottom to the top of the ladder; or (2) he is reading material which is simply a bad choice for him and he needs guidance, not dictation, to convince him that he can find pleasure in something better. To be quite specific — suppose a pupil, given completely free choice, reports that he has read *The Case of the Whispering Mummy*. In the first circumstance mentioned, the teacher might well be glad that the pupil has read any book at all and encourage him to read another of the same sort if he indicates that, for once, the reading has been a pleasure. In the second circumstance, the teacher would certainly suggest some other adventure story and help the pupil to build the readiness for it. In either case, "reading ladders" are very helpful. With a collection of such lists available, the teacher can lead pupils by easy stages to the highest level of appreciation their maturity and ability allow.

Vary the Methods of Evaluating Reading

When students are asked about things they dislike in English, "book reports" come near the head of the list. Formal reviewing is a deterrent rather than an aid to encouraging broad reading and establishing attitudes toward reading as one of the profitable pleasures of life. Yet teachers need to know what students are reading and what they are retaining from their reading.

There are many ways of evaluating the range and quality of a pupil's reading. One of the best is informal conversation with the student, but most teachers find this impractical with large numbers of students. Therefore devices must be found that

- — give the teacher a quick way of keeping in touch with the amount and quality of the pupil's reading
- — are interesting for the student to do
- — serve as motivation for the reading of other pupils

The following are a few suggestions for this kind of report. Some are best suited to reporting on informational reading; others, to reporting on imaginative literature:

1. Develop (or buy) cumulative reading records that require definite information about the type of book read and brief comments or reactions. These may be passed on from teacher to teacher.

2. Use graphs and charts to record quantity of reading. In junior high such a chart might be a big round archery target made with vari-colored poster paper. As children read books they write the title and author on a paper arrow and attach it to the target. Each book read brings them a little nearer to the bull's eye. In high school classes, line graphs made by stretching strips of colored scotch tape beside the pupil's name measure the amount of reading.

3. Have the pupil prepare a brief objective-type test on the book, not more than ten or twelve questions for the whole book. A collection of these (with keys prepared by students) can be built, and others may "take the test" when they have read the book.

4. Have pupils write very brief comments on 3″ x 5″ cards to be filed and used by other pupils when selecting books. Such a file is a useful motivating device, since a recommendation by a fellow-pupil is often twice as effective as anything the teacher can say.

5. Have the pupil report orally or in writing five new things he learned from a book.

6. Let pupils whose abilities are manual rather than verbal show the results of their reading by making objects or demonstrating skills acquired. Have them refer specifically to the books or articles that helped them.

7. Plan an "Author Meets the Critics" program. One student pretends to be the author and defends or explains the point of view of the book he has read.

8. Encourage small-group discussions of reading. Groups may be made up of pupils who have all read the same book, books on a similar theme, or different books by the same author. Some discussions may be tape-recorded for later listening by the whole class. In any case, always provide for a "secretary" to summarize in writing or orally the points made by the group.

9. Let pupils report by bulletin board displays or tabloid book reviews. The latter contain pictures (either original or cut from magazines) pasted on sheets of drawing paper with brief captions and "news" stories based on the book.

10. Have students interested in art make original book jackets complete with "blurbs."

11. Plan a book-promotion stunt. Pupils may try to "sell" well-liked books by sales-talks or by making display advertisements.

12. Encourage mature pupils to write short papers on the author's view of life as ascertained from the book.

13. Have pupils write a single characterizing sentence about each of the principal characters, five or ten sentences in all. These sentences should concern qualities of character, not personal appearance.

14. Suggest that pupils make diagrams, charts, maps, blueprints, or picture dictionaries based on their informational reading.

15. Have pupils write autobiographies of the principal characters.

16. Let pupils show how they would turn a book into a movie, casting the principal characters and writing brief "scenarios" of scenes they would highlight.

17. Ask small groups of pupils who have read the same book to dramatize scenes for the rest of the class. If they write their own script, written and spoken English will be included in the project.

18. Have a radio "broadcast" about books. Pupils talk about books, read excerpts, dramatize scenes. With a public address system, this kind of program can be entertaining and stimulating to the whole school.

Keep Your Own Score

Perhaps we can summarize the content of this chapter best by asking you to take a quiz. If you can mark half of the following statements true, you will probably have a higher-than-average English-teacher quotient:

T F I have made a study of the individual interests of pupils in my classes.

T F At least half the required reading in my class is done in pursuit of the pupils' individual interests.

T F I place no restrictions on choice of reading except that the pupil demonstrate in some way that his choice is fruitful for him as an individual.

T F I work in every way I can to guide pupils toward better choices but within the limits of their sincere interests.

T F I make as much use as possible of the resources of the school library.

T F I have a good classroom library.

T F I plan projects which will acquaint my pupils with public library resources.

T F I plan classroom activities to stimulate broad reading.

T F I take advantage of movies, television, and radio to inspire reading.

T F I emphasize magazine reading in my classes.

T F With my "general" classes I emphasize reading for information instead of reading for aesthetic appreciation.

T F Time for browsing is a definite part of my program.

T F My pupils have frequent opportunities to share their enthusiasms in reading.

T F I have many stimulating ways of evaluating the quality and quantity of my pupils' reading.

T F My room itself is arranged and equipped to suggest the pleasures of reading.

T F I frequently read new books which are particularly written for adolescents.

T F I frequently read the reviews of young people's books.

T F I spend time browsing in the young people's section of the public library.

Promoting reading today, when a dozen other interests compete for our pupils' time, requires energy and enthusiasm. More than that, it demands specialized knowledge of two kinds: a thorough understanding of what can interest children and a wide acquaintance with books in many fields and on many different levels of taste. The teacher thus equipped often succeeds in making the connection between the right book and the right pupil and thereby wins one more child to the belief that reading is "useful."

READING LADDERS*

Adventure!

Tom Whipple. Walter D. Edmonds. Tom, wishing to see the world, signed up for sea duty, only to discover himself aboard a cargo boat bound for Russia and an audience before the Emperor. (Dodd, 1942)

* These "ladders" are arranged in order of reading difficulty.

The Buffalo Knife. William O. Steele. Andy longed to own a buffalo knife. After traveling down the Tennessee River on a flatboat, fighting warlike Indians, and conquering the rapids, he proved his right to own one. (Harcourt, 1952)

Call it Courage. Armstrong Sperry. Mafatu, although he was the son of the great Chief, feared the mighty ocean, but by going off by himself he overcame his "weakness." (Macmillan, 1946)

Custer, Fighter of the Plains. Doris S. Garst. The heroic tale of the American cavalry leader who was slain by the Sioux Indians at the Little Big Horn Massacre. (Messner, 1944)

Boy with a Pack. Stephen W. Meader. Setting out from New Hampshire, Bill had many exciting adventures, meeting horse thieves, sharing canal boat life, and becoming involved in the Underground Railroad. (Harcourt, 1939)

He Sailed with Captain Cook. Charles A. Borden. A salty tale in which Tobias, a fourteen-year-old boy, sails with James Cook of the British Royal Navy on the famous South Sea Expedition. (Crowell, 1952)

Unwilling Pirate. West Lathrop. Steven Wheeler of Cape Cod is forced to become a cabin boy on the Black Betsy after being captured by Dick Turngate, the greatly feared pirate. (Random, 1951)

Lodestar. Franklyn M. Branley. Jack, an eighteen-year-old boy, and two scientists undertake the perilous flight to Mars in June, 1971. (Crowell, 1951)

Smoke Jumper. Marjorie H. Allee. Joining up in a new Forest Service, "smoke jumping," Bill, a recent high school graduate, finds excitement and adventure. (Houghton, 1945)

Long Wharf. Howard Pease. High adventure based upon the history of the barkentine, "Niantic," a real ship left deserted in San Francisco Bay in 1850. (Dodd, 1939)

Not Without Danger. Herbert Best. Excitement, piracy, intrigue and adventure on a sugar plantation during pre-Revolutionary days in Jamaica. (Viking, 1951)

Yankee Privateer. Andre Norton. Accidentally shanghaied aboard the *Retaliation*, Fitzhugh Lyon experiences many strange adventures while seeking to capture British merchant ships. (World, 1955)

Drawbridge Gate. Cynthia Harnett. Young Dickon is unwittingly involved in a conspiracy to overthrow King Henry V. (Putnam, 1954)

Banner in the Sky. James Ullman. Rudi Matt's heroic attempt to climb the almost unsurmountable peak of *The Citadel.* (Lippincott, 1954)

North Woods Whammy. Clyde B. Davis. Tony, his father, and an Indian guide take a camping and fishing trip in the Canadian wilderness with the result that Tony and his father come to understand each other. (Lippincott, 1951)

Kon-Tiki. Thor Heyerdahl. Convinced that by sailing 4,000 miles across the Pacific on a balsa raft he could repeat an earlier feat of the pre-Inca Indians of Peru, the author actually carried out his idea successfully. (Rand, 1950)

Annapurna. Maurice Herzog. The struggle to scale a mountain 26,493 feet high, as told by the leader of the French Himalayan Expedition. (Dutton, 1952)

People to Know

Daniel Boone. John Mason Brown. Readable story of a great American pioneer and the opening of the West. (Random, 1952)

Gandhi: Fighter Without a Sword. Jeanette Eaton. School days in England, years of service in working to unite Hindus and Mohammedans, and his efforts to free India are graphically described in this story of Gandhi. (Morrow, 1950)

Amos Fortune, Free Man. Elizabeth Yates. Born a free man in Africa, Amos Fortune became a slave in America, finally purchased his freedom, and lived a respected citizen in Jaffrey, New Hampshire. (Aladdin, 1950)

Red Jacket: Last of the Senecas. Arthur C. Parker. A Seneca chief whose aid to the colonists earned him a decoration by George Washington. (Whittlesey, 1952)

Winged Moccasins. Frances J. Farnsworth. Readable biography of Sacajawea, the capable woman guide of the Lewis and Clark expedition. (Messner, 1954)

Runaway to the Sun. Robert L. Scott. Colonel Scott relates his experiences as an Eagle Scout and at West Point. Later came his flying adventures. (Scribner, 1945)

Father Flanagan of Boys Town. Fulton Oursler. Not only Father Flanagan's own story of his fight against tuberculosis, but also the growth of Boys Town, Nebraska, haven for homeless and destitute boys. (Doubleday, 1949)

Trailblazer to Television. Terry and E. P. Horn. The story of the eminent scientist, Dr. Arthur Horn, who transmitted the first picture by wireless across the Atlantic Ocean. (Scribner, 1950)

Cheaper by the Dozen. Frank Gilbreth and Ernestine Carey. Adventures of twelve Gilbreth children whose father kept his family busy by his efficiency-expert schemes. (Crowell, 1948)

Leonardo Da Vinci. Elma Ehrlich Levinger. Pictures the man not only as a great painter but also as the scientist and inventor. (Messner, 1954)

Story of the Trapp Family Singers. Maria A. Trapp. Amusing stories of the adventures of a famous musical family. (Lippincott, 1949)

Man Called White. Walter Francis White. Fair-skinned Walter White learned as a child what it meant to be a Negro, but as he says in his book, "I am white and I am black, and know that there is no difference." (Viking, 1948)

Reach for the Sky. Paul Brickhill. The heroic story of the aviator who lost both legs in an air crash in 1931 and who recovered to take part in the Battle of Britain. (Norton, 1954)

Worlds to Explore

All About Whales. Roy Chapman Andrews. Based on actual experiences of the author, this is the story of whales, their characteristics and habits. (Random, 1954)

It's Fun to Know Why: Experiments with Things Around Us. Julius Schwartz. Easy-to-do experiments with an excellent "how," "what," and "why" index. (Whittlesey, 1952)

Real Book About Stars. Harold L. Goodwin. The author introduces the reader to the world of stars and constellations. (Garden City, 1951)

What Makes the World Go Round. Edward G. Huey. First principles of physics and dynamics with discussions of the electron, atom, electricity, magnetism, engines, and other everyday forces. (Harcourt, 1953 ed.)

Going Up: The Story of Vertical Transportation. John E. Bechdolt. Graphic story of man's attempt and successes in going upward. The inventing of the lever, wheel, and pulley provided the simple elevator, and with the coming of electricity the modern elevator was invented. (Abingdon-Cokesbury, 1948)

What Makes It Tick? Katharine Britton. Artillery, electricity, photography, submarine boats, and military airplanes are some of the topics discussed in this "how" science book. (Houghton, 1943)

A Boy and a Battery. Raymond F. Yates. Helpful diagrams explain how to make batteries, current detectors, and a magnetic diver. (Harper, 1942)

Engineers' Dreams. Willy Ley. World-wide projects which engineers could build if political and economic problems could be overcome. (Viking, 1954)

Wheels. Edwin Tunis. Pictorial history of thousands of years of development in land transportation. (World, 1955)

Rockets, Missiles, and Space Travel. Willy Ley. A history and report of research in rocket and space travel written in such a way as to make the reader want to draw up his own plans for a space trip. (Viking, 1951)

By Space Ship to the Moon. Fletcher Pratt. Scientific, accurate account of the conquest of space and the problems involved in making a trip to the moon. (Random, 1952)

Atoms at Work. George P. Bischof. The author's son asked so many questions about atoms that this book was written explaining basic principles and giving directions for simple experiments. (Harcourt, 1951)

Television Works Like This. Jeanne and Robert Bendick. Simple drawings illustrate TV and its basic principles, and considerable information is given concerning the origin of programs and the function of members of the staff. (Whittlesey, 1949)

Spirit of St. Louis. Charles A. Lindbergh. Story of the aviator who in 1926 decided to try for the prize to be awarded for the first Atlantic crossing. (Scribner, 1953)

BOOKLISTS

Annotated List of Books for Supplementary Reading, Kindergarten to Grade 9. Children's Reading Service, 106 Beekman Street, New York 38.

A Book and Magazine List Suitable for Small High School Libraries. Bureau of Educational Research and Service Bulletin, College of Education, University of Wyoming. 1949.

Books for You: A Reading List for Teen-agers. National Council of Teachers of English, Chicago, 1951.

Books of Fiction Dealing with Home and Family Living. American Home Economics Association, 700 Victor Building, Washington 1, D. C. 1948.

Books to Help Build International Understanding by Nora E. Beust and Gertrude G. Broderick. Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington 25, 1952.

By Way of Introduction. American Library Association, National Education Association, and National Council of Teachers of English, Chicago, 1947.

Combined List of Library Books for Secondary Schools. Board of Education of the City of New York, Bureau of Libraries. 1951.

Developmental Values Through Library Books by Effie La Plante and Thelma O'Donnell, Division of Libraries, Chicago Board of Education. *Chicago Schools Journal*, Vol. XXXI, March–April, 1950 Supplement.

Essays and General Literature Index, Ed. Minnie E. Sears and Marion Shaw. H. W. Wilson Company, 950 University Avenue, New York 52. Annual.

Fare for the Reluctant Reader. Capital Area School Development Association, New York State College for Teachers, Albany. 1952.

Gateways to Readable Books by Ruth Strang, *et al.* H. W. Wilson Company. 1952.

Growing with Books by Bernice Leary and Dora V. Smith. E. M. Hale and Company, Eau Claire, Wisconsin. 1951.

Historical Fiction and Other References for Classes in Junior and Senior High School by Hannah Logasa. McKinley Publishing Company, Philadelphia. 1949.

Magazines for School Libraries by Laura K. Martin. H. W. Wilson Company. 1950.

Patterns in Reading by Jean Carolyn Roos. American Library Association, Chicago. 1954.

Reading Ladders for Human Relations. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. 1949.

We Build Together: A Reader's Guide to Negro Life and Literature for Elementary and High School Use by Charlemae Rollins. National Council of Teachers of English, Chicago. 1948.

Your Reading. A list for junior high school. National Council of Teachers of English, Chicago. 1954.

Sources of Current Booklists

Library Journal (62 West 45th Street, New York 19) publishes a checklist of books for boys and girls by grade and subject.

Publishers' Weekly (62 West 45th Street, New York 19) lists all new trade publications weekly.

Chapter III — Writing Skills

THE WRITING SKILLS of high school graduates are more commonly under attack than any of the other skills in the language arts curriculum. Misspellings and double negatives stand out in cold black and white, and anyone who recognizes the errors shakes his head and wonders "what they're teaching in the schools these days."

Faced with such criticism, teachers may well take a long and steady look at the present writing skills program. Is time and effort being wasted in the study of grammatical terminology? Are usage drills being forced indiscriminately upon students who have no need for them? Are attempts to reach unrealistically high standards undermining the learning of the really basic skills? Is too much time spent in learning *about* language and too little in its actual *use*? One probably cannot learn to write well without writing any more than one can learn to cook by reading about herbs and condiments and memorizing the ingredients in bouillabaisse. Time spent in learning the terminology of grammar, in punctuating other people's paragraphs, and filling in blanks in someone else's sentences is time lost from the act of writing.

No experienced teacher needs the weight of research to bolster his own conclusions that student writing remains slipshod and ungrammatical even after large doses of formal grammar. It is the inexperienced teacher (he was a whiz at diagraming, himself) who is surprised at his students' inability to transfer grammatical principles into their own writing. If he is persistent, the more red pencilling he does, the more drills he forces upon his pupils. As they grow more bored and resentful, and his efforts become more futile, he is likely to throw up his hands in despair and beat a quick retreat into the literature program for three weeks' intensive study of *A Tale of Two Cities.*

The teacher who has learned that formal drills are a poor investment casts about for new approaches. He closes the workbooks, for the moment, and studies instead his pupils' needs and abilities.

What Skills Do They Need?

Before determining what should be taught, the teacher must decide what writing experiences today's non-academic students will encounter both in school and in adult life. He

knows the kind of socio-economic backgrounds his pupils come from, the vocational opportunities open to them, and the standards of usage in their community. With reasonable accuracy, he can guess what their present and future needs will be. Every high school graduate, he may conclude, should be prepared for the following writing experiences:

— Filling out forms and applications
— Making and filling requests, ordering materials (by forms and letters), making adjustments, etc.
— Writing descriptions of objects or persons to be identified by others
— Writing directions and explanations
— Recording telephone messages
— Writing personal letters and notes

Some students will add to these activities the following:

— Writing social notes
— Writing reports and announcements
— Writing minutes of meetings
— Writing to and for newspapers
— Writing to persuade others (including sales letters)
— Organizing notes on reading

In addition to these activities, some students may find pleasure in expressing themselves creatively in diaries, short stories, or other literary forms. They may be led to recognize such needs and encouraged to satisfy them.

A few of these activities, like giving directions and explanations and making reports and announcements, will more often appear as oral activities in adult life. However, some teachers prefer to present them as written assignments because more pupils can receive practice at the same time.

What do students need in order to engage successfully in such activities? Clear thinking, favorable attitudes toward writing, and tools of correct usage are all required. A well-balanced program stimulates clear thinking and builds mechanical skills on the foundation of favorable attitudes. The classifications below are intended as examples of the kind of analysis that should precede a reorganization of the writing skills program.

Attitudes

Recognizing situations when communication is necessary

Developing confidence in one's ability to write

Recognizing the importance of acknowledging sources of borrowed information

Finding satisfaction in carefully prepared work

Thinking before Writing

Increasing flow of ideas

Selecting appropriate ideas about which to write

Finding topics of interest to others

Improving accuracy of observation

Organizing ideas in appropriate order

Tools of Good Expression

Skills Basic for Everyone

— Appropriate usage
— Punctuation and capitalization
— Spelling (including apostrophes)
— Writing simple sentences
— Writing single paragraphs

Additional Skills Desirable for Some Students

— Sentence variety
— Effective vocabulary

SAMPLE CHART OF WRITING SKILLS

	Mechanics								*Higher Skills*				*Thinking Processes*		
Pupils' Names	**Punctuation**	**Capitals**	**Agreement (subject-verb)**	**Principal Parts of Verbs**	**Shift in Tense**	**Spelling**	**Sentence Sense**		**Sentence Variety**	**Vocabulary**	**Paragraphing**		**Accuracy of Observation**	**Flow of Ideas**	**Organizing Ideas**
Ralph J.			√				√								
Mary S.	√		√ √						√	√	√ √				√
Henry T.			√				√				√				

— Organization of several paragraphs
— Note-taking

Students whose talents and interests lie in creative expression will need all these skills developed to a higher degree. In addition, they will need help in areas such as the following:

— Developing powers of description
— Writing realistic dialogue
— Arousing reader interest
— Developing an individual style
— Achieving humorous effect
— Adding "punch" to style

Few, even among college-bound students, will become budding young authors. Certainly, no teacher would enforce on all students such assignments as "The Coming of Spring" or "My Most Embarrassing Moment." Even with very capable students, the emphasis should be on sincere personal exposition, the type of writing adults most frequently use, rather than on attempts at literary narration and description.

What Language Abilities Do They Have?

The teacher knows from such an analysis of his pupils' present and future needs what skills are to be emphasized. Now he must find out how his pupils stand in relation to these skills. Even in homogeneously grouped classes the teacher will find a wide range of abilities. For instance, he cannot assume that his "general" students represent only the average-to-slow learners. Since more than half of today's high school population is made up of terminal students, the normal curve of intelligence will usually obtain in non-academic classes. Failure to recognize students of superior ability in general classes has sometimes resulted in an impoverishment of the curriculum that is as indefensible as the attempt to force a college-preparatory English program on all students. To insure the fullest possible growth for all pupils, the teacher must identify individual strengths and weaknesses.

Measuring Basic Skills:

Standardized tests, informal tests, and analyses of free writing may be used. Standardized and informal tests give controlled coverage of the skills they measure, but they do not test the pupil's use of these skills in his own writing. On the other hand, analyses of the pupil's free writing are not completely reliable because the pupil may conceal his deficiencies by limiting himself to the skills he knows he has mastered.

The simplest approach is by means of standardized tests. Easily administered and scored, these tests yield some basic knowledge quickly. In general, standardized survey tests are useful in identifying the range of differences, in measuring whole-class progress in basic skills, and in comparing the standing of a particular class with pupils at the same grade level in other schools. Standardized diagnostic tests give some idea of individual achievement in specific skills and, within their limited scope, can be used for individual diagnosis.

In choosing the standardized test, the teacher should examine the items carefully to determine whether they are selected from standard English in current use or whether they are based on fine distinctions no longer considered important by reputable authorities. Tests of English usage written many years ago and representing an ultraconservative, outdated point of view give an unfair picture of students' abilities. If no satisfactory standardized test is found to meet a particular situation, the teacher may build informal tests or use suitable workbook exercises as tests.

Because of the limitations of both standardized and informal tests, the teacher will also want to evaluate his pupils' free writing. One way is to plan a series of free-writing situations, to correct each set of papers for one or more specific skills, and to record the results on a master chart. For example, one set of short themes may be corrected for punctuation, capitalization, and spelling; another, for fragmentary and run-together sentences; another, for verb tenses and pronouns.

Measuring Higher Skills:

Since few standardized tests measure adequately the skills listed above as desirable for the more capable students, the teacher must rely mainly on informal analyses to diagnose the needs of these students. While free writing alone can be used for this diagnosis, it is probably better to build informal tests for specific skills.

Planning Instruction to Meet Individual Needs

The initial testing program serves primarily to guide the teacher in making groupings on the basis of the pupils' abilities. If scores from standardized and informal tests and analyses of free writing have been recorded in the manner suggested by the sample chart in this chapter, the teacher can see at a glance in what areas the major weaknesses of the class lie. Reading across the chart, he can tell the particular strengths and weaknesses of individual pupils. A single check means some difficulty; a double check, serious difficulty. He may decide to emphasize sentence sense for a group of pupils who have check marks under this heading. Those who have mastered this skill may be grouped for instruction in one of the higher skills, perhaps

sentence variety. It is not to be inferred that such grouping necessarily means simultaneous instruction in these two skills. While the teacher instructs one group in sentence sense, the other pupils may be doing free writing, working on individual or group projects, or reading for pleasure. On another day, the first group may continue work on sentence sense without the teacher's direct guidance, while he introduces sentence variety to the second group.

The teacher may decide that paragraphing, for example, is a skill in which the whole class needs instruction. In that case, he may use initial whole-class instruction followed by job-sheet exercises constructed on two or three levels of difficulty. Many teachers prefer the almost completely individualized program based on job sheets. Such a program necessitates good supplies of practice materials, an efficient filing system, and well-trained, highly motivated students. Where these conditions exist, it is probably the most direct and effective attack on mechanics and usage. On the basis of informal test results, the teacher provides for each pupil a list of the skills in which he is deficient and references to workbook pages, textbooks, or job sheets that will give him the intensive practice he needs. The pupil corrects his own work, records his scores, and takes periodic mastery tests.

Where does skills instruction fit into the total language arts program? Unless the teacher provides for immediate use of the skills in life-like situations, pupils will lose the motivating drive stimulated by the initial testing program. In blocking out the year's work, therefore, the teacher plans skills teaching to precede or accompany units where a particular skill will be used. For example, an eleventh-grade teacher, planning a unit on vocational opportunities in the local community, can foresee the need for writing letters to businessmen, preparing captions for bulletin board displays, writing reports of interviews, summaries of class discussions, and explanations of mechanical processes. Since he cannot cover at once all the skills necessary for success in these types of writing, he selects those which seem the most vital and which will be put to most immediate use by the pupils.

Evaluating Progress

The initial testing program serves only to set the stage. Systematic evaluation of growth in language must continue throughout the year. The success of the skills program is measured primarily by the improvement in the students' free writing. Good grades on mastery tests are no proof of proficiency in actual writing. But in his zeal for checking on transfer, the teacher is on dangerous ground. Too much attention to mechanics, via red-pencilled themes, can stultify interest in writing and inhibit more important aspects of language development such as the free flow of ideas and effective expression. Furthermore, prevention of errors is more desirable than correction — both for the overworked teacher and the overcriticized pupil. As much as possible, writing should be done in class where the teacher is available for help in forestalling errors. As another ounce of prevention, students should proofread each other's papers for mechanics always and sometimes also for the effectiveness of communication.

Still the teacher needs to know how well pupils can do without the

help of others. So occasionally but systematically, he makes writing assignments that he corrects for one or more specific skills. Another and perhaps more effective means of checking on progress is to sample the writing done in classes other than English. Correcting papers can itself be an aspect of individualizing instruction if the teacher corrects Johnny's paper for run-on sentences, Mary's for punctuation, and Bill's for the particular skill on which he has been concentrating his practice.

Teachers can be lost in a morass of pupils' progress records if the system is not simplified to barest essentials. A new system for recording growth in language abilities need not be superimposed on the old system of recording ranks in a grade book. Wherever possible, pupils should keep their own progress records. On a card for each pupil prepared at the beginning of the year on the basis of testing, the teacher can list the skills that pupil is to emphasize. The list should be *short*. If the pupil "writes off" errors in these skills, other points of emphasis can be added as the year advances. Per cent scores on mastery tests may also be recorded on these cards. The pupil may keep his own card, preferably in a folder with his written assignments. When an assignment to be corrected for skills improvement is handed in, the pupil may clip his progress card to his paper so that the teacher is reminded of what skills to evaluate. At the end of the marking period, the teacher refers to the folder of written work and the progress chart to compute grades.

The Need for Individualizing Instruction

When analysis uncovers a wide range of language abilities in one class, the teacher sometimes wonders why. At least part of the answer lies in the fact that language skills are conditioned by the environment. School represents a very small part of the child's total environment, and the forty-five minute period in which good usage is enforced may be submerged by hours spent in environments where different standards prevail. Another reason is that language development is as irregular as physical growth. Just as some boys and girls mature physically more rapidly than others, some develop sentence sense in grade four and others are still struggling to acquire it in high school.

Research has not yet shown the steps by which we move from the one-word, two-word, subject-verb sentences of the infant to the complex sentence patterns of the adult. Consequently, the clearly defined sequential program of language skills that most teachers seek as a guide to instruction is still somewhere in the future. The best that can be done right now to systematize language instruction is to decide on the place in the whole-school program where specific skills are to be introduced and to repeat instruction as long as the need arises. Until child development studies provide more knowledge, this decision as to grade placement must be based on (1) the importance of the skill in the pupils' language activities; (2) the difficulty involved in acquiring the necessary concepts; and (3) the pupils' readiness to use the skill.

All of this underscores the necessity for individualizing instruction in language, at least to the point where pupils with common needs are grouped together. One of the complaints most frequently heard from

high school students is that "English is the same old thing over and over again." If the prescription "to repeat as needed" is interpreted as another dose for the whole class, that complaint is justifiable. Pupils who have already acquired the skill involved are bored by needless instruction. If they are docile pupils, they relieve their boredom by supplying all the answers, thus stealing attention from the very pupils who need the learning experience. In such a situation, pupils at both ends of the scale are short-changed.

The problems involved in adjusting to individual differences are many. Collecting materials, devising efficient ways of using them, training pupils to work alone and in groups, planning more than one assignment for use in periods of skills instruction — these are not jobs that can be done overnight. But the teacher who moves gradually toward a program of differentiated instruction should be amply rewarded in improved pupil morale and greater personal satisfaction. A classroom where every pupil is working toward clearly attainable goals is a pleasant place to be — for pupil and teacher.

Some Devices for Teaching Writing Skills

Research has shown that most mechanical errors in writing fall into one of these classes:

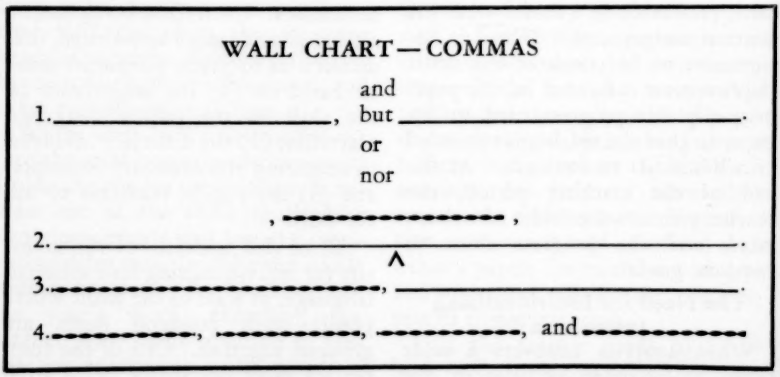
Punctuation (especially commas)
Errors in the use of pronouns
— Case uses
— Faulty reference
Errors in the use of verbs
— Agreement
— Misuse of principal parts
— Shift in tense
Spelling

A few techniques that have been found successful in teaching these particularly troublesome skills are given below. An attempt has been made to show how parts of this teaching may be done without recourse to unnecessary formal grammar. The main emphasis in this section, however, is given to such problems as increasing flow of ideas, enriching vocabulary, and organizing paragraphs. Published materials are not so readily available for this work as they are for teaching the mechanical skills.

Punctuation

One method of presenting commas without referring to rules that involve grammatical terms is to draw four "pictures" of sentences requiring commas. Use straight lines to represent independent clauses and wavy lines to indicate any word or group of words that is not an independent clause.

Quickly drawn on oak tag with a free-flow pen (borrow from a primary teacher, but you will want to buy one once you have tried it), these substitutes for rules may be posted permanently in the classroom. Write parts of sentences on smaller pieces of oak tag, cut to fit slots made in the chart. Let pupils insert



independent clauses above straight lines and other items above wavy lines, thus re-enforcing the meaning of the diagrams. The same kind of teaching may be done on the blackboard with sentences provided by the pupils, but the permanent wall chart is still a good idea.

In explaining the meaning of the lines, substitute for *independent clause* "a group of words which could be a separate sentence if necessary." Tell pupils that the wavy line is "for any word or group of words that could not be a separate sentence."

Similar diagrams may be drawn for teaching other marks of punctuation. They prove especially effective for teaching quotation marks.

Plenty of practice material may be found in textbooks and workbooks. In selecting exercises for job sheets, give priority to those that tell a continuous story and have context slanted toward teen-age interests. To supplement this material, and to emphasize awareness of current usage, collect (or have pupils collect) paragraphs from newspapers and magazines illustrating varying uses. After these have been used for class discussion, paste on cards for job-sheet file. Later, ask one pupil to copy a paragraph "unpunctuating" and "decapitalizing" it. He gives this version to a partner who replaces commas, capitals, etc., and corrects from the original.

Use of Pronouns

Teach case usage on the principle of "This is what we do," rather than "This is why we do it." It is not necessary to label pronouns *nominative* and *objective*. On the blackboard or wall chart, write all the pronouns in each case, labeling them simply List I and List II. Teach the following principles:

1. List all tenses of the verb "to be" and say: "If you need to use a pronoun after any verb in this list, be sure it comes from List I."
2. List the common prepositions and state: "If you need to use a pronoun after any of these words, be sure it comes from List II."
3. "If you are using two pronouns or a pronoun and another word connected by *and* or *or*, try the sentence with only one pronoun and you will know whether to use a word from List I or II."
4. "When in doubt about which pronoun to use after *than*, complete the thought of the sentence and you will know whether to use a pronoun from List I or List II."

Use of Verbs

Teach agreement between subject and verb without discussing the grammatical names. Simple illustrative sentences give the best examples:

A bag of peanuts was a big investment for Charlie.
A dime and a nickel, all his hard-earned wealth, were jingling in his pocket.
Charlie is one of the boys who are always dating Mary.
Charlie is the only one of the boys who has a car.
The car, more than his bag of peanuts, was the source of Charlie's charm.

Draw arrows between the subjects and verbs and bring out the relationships by asking such questions as: What was a big investment, all the peanuts in the world or just a bag of them? What were jingling in his pocket? Is Charlie the only boy who dates Mary? Do all the boys have a car? What was the source of Charlie's charm?

Misuse of principal parts can be corrected by drill on a *short* list, labeled according to use, not grammatical terminology. Use "time" instead of "tense" in discussing shifts in tense.

Spelling

Poor attitude is one of the chief causes of poor spelling. If the student can be shown the social and economic value of spelling, he will want to acquire the habits essential to learning *how* to spell. These habits are more important goals than learning a list of words, for no list can cover all the words an individual may need. Teach the following habits:

— Analyzing new words and visualizing them
— Checking guesses
— Proofreading

Teach pupils to analyze spelling words in the following manner:

1. Write the word on the blackboard.
2. Pronounce word carefully. Pronounce it again by syllables.
3. Have students pronounce word by syllables and also as a whole.
4. Direct pupils' attention to the difficult parts of the word — especially the nonphonetic parts. Show them that they need to study only the difficult parts. The rest of the word they can spell by sound.
5. Have pupils examine word carefully.
6. Have pupils look away and try to visualize word.
7. Have pupils check visual image with word on blackboard.
8. Cover word on blackboard and have pupils write word from memory.
9. Have pupils check with correct copy. If wrong, start again with Step 1.
10. If right, have pupils cover first writing and write again. Check again with correct copy, etc.

The number of times a pupil needs to write and check with the original depends on the individual pupil and his needs. Five times is recommended as a start in teaching this method.

Use this method for presenting new words until pupils form the habit of studying their own spelling demons in this manner. Encourage pupils to keep a pocket notebook of words misspelled. Provide class time for study of these words according to the steps given. When it is time for a test, pupils take partners and dictate each other's list.

Do not discourage students from asking how a word is spelled. It is better for them to do so than to be indifferent to misspellings. Of course, the habit of checking in the dictionary is desirable but only practicable when there is an adequate supply of dictionaries in the classroom. Proofreading must be taught. It is a different technique from re-reading for thought or style. Practice exercises should show students how to read word by word, looking at each syllable. A few spelling rules are of real help; those that are should be taught inductively. From a sufficient number of examples, let the students derive principles that may help them in similar cases. Memory tricks are useful if they are not too complicated. Have pupils themselves look for memory aids to share with classmates and to supplement those that you give them.

Motivating Devices

Once the concepts underlying correct usage have been explained in language pupils can understand, intensive practice must follow. To offset the boredom that can result from drill, the following motivational devices are suggested:

- — Keep it brief. Frequent short drills (five or ten minutes) are better than whole periods.
- — Make it lively. Spend some time making up humorous examples of the points you want to teach. Avoid "literary" illustrations; take a leaf from teen-age magazines; use *Reader's Digest* anecdotes, *Popular Mechanics* articles, newspaper headlines, etc., as sources.
- — Share "boners" with the class — from student themes, magazines, radio and television shows.
- — Collect cartoons that illustrate principles of usage and encourage students to do so.
- — Make wall charts, employing stick figures. Use student talent whenever possible. Commercial posters are also available.
- — Draw graphs of progress, on either an individual or group basis, as reminders of progress toward specific goals.
- — Use films, filmstrips, and slides as substitutes for textbook teaching.
- — Use games, especially with younger students and slow learners. Relays, races, "bees," adaptations of football and baseball rules are possibilities.
- — Use dictation exercises for spelling, punctuation, sentence sense, and good usage. After you have shown the way, let students write dictation paragraphs for you. Humor and appeal to adolescent interests may better come from student writers than from your own efforts.
- — And always provide immediate purposeful writing situations in which skills may be used.

Flow of Ideas

Exercises for the "flow of ideas" can do two jobs at once: show you how much ability in elaborative thinking your pupils already have and show your pupils how ideas may be stimulated and channeled for productive thinking, writing, and speaking activities.

Begin with simple free-association exercises, as: "Tell me quickly the first thing you think of when I say *bread*." "When I say *silver*, you think of what?" This becomes a game, with students supplying the key words as well as the associations. Next, you may emphasize the multiplicity of ideas inherent in one word by putting a word on the board, and drawing from pupils all the different ideas (expressed in single words or phrases) suggested to them. Begin with concrete words (*fan*) and move to abstractions (*loyalty*). The group stimulate each other and the list of ideas grows as rapidly as the teacher can write.

When pupils develop ease in supplying ideas, the next steps are introduced: organizing random ideas into patterns, evaluating their worth, discarding some because they are trite, retaining others for their freshness and originality. Organized and evaluated, these ideas may eventually be shaped into paragraphs or longer units.

Stimulation may come from a variety of sources: from words (as suggested above), from common objects in the classroom, from others that the teacher brings in, from colors, abstract paintings, mobiles, and from recordings (popular as well as classical). After pupils have been introduced to this type of exercise, as a group, show an object (e.g., a stone) and ask them to write individually all the ideas suggested to them in two minutes. Discussing each other's lists, comparing them for quantity and quality, may set the stage for selecting ideas from the lists for further elaboration.

Accuracy of Observation

Increasing students' ability to observe the world around them is another step toward helping them to find something to write about. Such observation includes awareness of sounds, smells, tastes, and tactile sensations as well as sights.

— Show a film selected for its wealth of visual detail or sound effects. Prepare students before the showing by telling them what to look or listen for. Later ask them to list, under certain classifications, objects seen or heard. Show film again as check.

— Show still pictures, with an opaque projector if possible. Remove picture and ask pupils to list as many objects as they can remember. Difficulty may be increased by choosing more and more complex pictures. The same idea may be used with arrangements of objects.

— Have pupils list equipment in another room of the school. Let them check their observation.

— On trips to and from school, let pupils concentrate on various days on collecting sounds, smells, types of objects seen, etc.

— Have pupils identify familiar objects in the school from other pupils' descriptions of them.

— Have pupils prepare quizzes on the school environment, as "What is the motto over the entrance?" "Whose picture is on the hall bulletin board?"

— Make a detective game out of spotting clues in pictures that reveal stories. News photographs, for example, may show cause of accident.

— Have pupil perform simple act in front of the class. Quiz group on the details of his performance.

Vocabulary Enrichment

The following suggestions are designed to increase awareness of words and to encourage an exact and vivid writing vocabulary. Games, word drills, and discussions should be followed by opportunities to use newly acquired words in writing (or speaking). Otherwise, the student's recognition vocabulary may be increased without his adding a single expressive word to his writing or speaking vocabulary.

— Present paragraphs or sentences with words underlined. Ask pupils to rewrite without using words underlined. Material may be taken from student themes.

— Interest pupils in origins of our idiomatic expressions. Refer to H. L. Mencken's *The American Language* and Norman Lewis's *Word Power Made Easy* for derivations you can explain to students. Have them collect expressions such as "ax to grind," "I'm from Missouri," etc.

— Use phrases from sports columnists as a starting place for a discussion of figurative language. Terms from baseball, wrestling, "hot rod" slang make more sense to some students than "literary" examples. Once their interest is aroused, you can move "up" in quality of sources.

— Give training in changing general statements to specific.

— Encourage pupils to notice new words and phrases as they come into the language.

— Take part of a period for making up puns.

— Show pupils how to use in new contexts words they have learned in content subjects such as general science, bookkeeping, biology or manual training. Make up sentences like "Mary's sense of humor proved an *asset* when disagreements threatened the discussion." "His *magnetic* personality attracted many admirers."

— Whenever possible, illustrate word meanings. If you cannot provide direct experience through field trips and demonstrations so that pupils can see, hear, touch, manipulate new objects and thus acquire new words, use visual aids. Films (not necessarily on vocabulary building but on any subject that strikes pupil interests) are best. Next in order: filmstrips, slides, posters, pictures, charts.

— Have pupils derive lists of words stimulated by pictures (magazine covers, human-interest pictures from LIFE, striking photographs, reproductions of fine art, particularly modern art).

— Stimulate use of common words in contexts that require their less common meanings: "a *run* on the stock market," "to make *fast*."

— Collect coined words from advertisements, like *listerine*, *plexiglass*, *nylon*, etc.

— Use word games with some groups. *The Doctor's Cat* is an old game that is still useful. The first pupil starts with an adjective beginning with *a*: "The doctor's cat is an *angry* cat." The game goes on through the alphabet, and the winner is the one who can always think of a word beginning with the proper letter when his turn comes. Charades are also useful in enforcing the meaning of newly acquired words.

— Crossword puzzles, vocabulary baseball, verbal tennis and the like can be made difficult enough to challenge high school pupils. A variety of vocabulary baseball, for example, presents nine words for each "inning." Each of nine players pronounces a word, uses it in a sentence, and gives meaning. The team that makes a perfect score is credited with a home run.

Sentence Variety

Leaving plenty of space between words, write simple subject-verb sentence on blackboard. Over the subject write *who*; over the verb, *how*. Ask pupils to suggest answers to these questions until you have written a number of different sentences. Elaborate further by asking pupils to tell what other questions they would like to have answered. They may add *where*, *when* and *why* to the verb, *what kind of* to noun.

From these suggestions, ask pupils to choose the complete sentence they like best. Ask them to express the same thought in as many different sentence patterns as possible.

Give pupils a series of short simple sentences that form a paragraph. These may be taken from student writing or adapted from news items, anecdotes, etc. Pupils are to combine sentences into mature patterns. As their skill increases, they may be given more specific directions as: "Make into three sentences," "Save the main thought of this paragraph to the very end," "Start with the name of the town," etc.

To teach the combining of simple sentences into compound or complex, begin by discussing the meaning of connectives like *and, but, however, furthermore, although.* Make lists of these connectives, grouping them according to meaning and supplying the appropriate punctuation for each one. Then give pairs of simple sentences that are related in meaning: "Charlie's car had a flat tire. He was late for the game." From lists of connectives, pupils draw appropriate words for combining the sentences. At first use only co-ordinate conjunctions; later add subordinate. The next step is to add a third sentence, as "The coach asked Bob to substitute," and ask pupils to fuse the three ideas.

Some teachers number the statements and vary the lesson by asking for combinations of 1 and 3; 2 and 1; 1, 2, and 3, etc. After initial teaching, these exercises may be transferred to job sheets for individual practice.

Another way of increasing facility in sentence structure is to prepare half sentences for students to complete by logical development of the thought. Sentences may be designed to teach co-ordination and subordination, parallel structure, etc. For example:

When the clock struck midnight,.....
Now that.....,
we shall.....,
....., and.....
Either Bob failed the history exam, or.....
.....
Not only was Mary late for the party, but Johnny,....., had to withdraw from the game. .....
....., he tripped and fell.

Organization of Ideas

Begin with classifying single words under general headings. Later, sentences on two, three, or more ideas may be presented in a scrambled list and the pupil asked to sort out those that belong together.

Teach outlining with packs of cards on each of which one item of the whole outline has been written. The cards are scrambled and given to the pupil to arrange in a logical outline.

At the completion of a unit of reading, ask each pupil to write one sentence stating a fact he has learned. Call upon one pupil to read his sentence and ask all those whose sentences belong with this one to give them to the first pupil. Have him read the sentences and let the group evaluate their fitness for that particular paragraph. Continue until all sentences have been grouped. At the same time, suggestions for improving expression can be made and the most effective order of the sentences considered. As each group is evaluated, pupil writes the completed paragraph on the blackboard. This procedure may be simplified by preparing sentences ahead of time. Adapt them from a magazine article, preparing one sentence for each pupil.

Selected List of Materials

Standardized Tests

Cooperative English Test. (Lower Level) Range: 7–12. Working time: 40 minutes for each test. Test A, *Mechanics of Expression,* tests grammatical usage, punctuation, capitalization, and spelling. Test B, *Effectiveness of Expression,* is intended to measure sentence structure and style, verbal skill, and organization. Not diagnostic of specific weaknesses; a good survey of general abilities. (Cooperative Test Division, 20 Nassau Street, Princeton, N. J.)

Essentials of English Tests. Range: 7–13. Working time: 45 minutes. Developed by Dora V. Smith and Constance McCullough, these tests cover spelling, grammatical usage, word usage, sentence structure, punctuation and capitalization. May be used as survey or for individual diagnosis. (Educational Test Bureau, Educational Publishers, Inc., Minneapolis, Minnesota)

Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills. Test C, Range: Adv., 5–9. Working time: 55 minutes. In the areas tested (punctuation, capitalization, usage, and spelling), this test is useful for diagnosis. Excellent manual provides help in planning corrective teaching. (Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street, Boston, Mass.)

The New Purdue Placement Test in English, Forms D and E. Range: high school and college. Working time: 65 minutes. This new (1955) revision tests recognition of grammatical errors, punctuation, sentence clearness and effectiveness, reading, vocabulary, and spelling. (Houghton Mifflin)

Textbooks in Language Skills

Better English. (Herzberg, Guild, Hook, Stevens). Each topic in this six-year series (7–12) is set up in three parts: Getting the Facts, Using the Facts, Testing Mastery of the Facts. Emphasis is on meaningful use of language in many situations. (Ginn and Company, Boston, 1953)

Common Sense English (Blumenthal) A series of three workbooks for high school that present usage in a simplified, non-technical manner. Where the author has felt it necessary to refer to grammatical principles, he has attempted to reduce technical nomenclature. (Harcourt, Brace, 1950)

English Language Series. (Chase, Huseby, Olson, Sterling) This series (7–12) emphasizes the three-phase cycle of the use of language: reception (observing, listening, sensing, reading), reflection (associating, ordering,summarizing), and expression (speaking and writing). The books are planned to provide extra experience for superior pupils as well as the basic sequential program. (Henry Holt and Company, 1950)

The Landis Series. (Walker, Bartels, and Marye) Four workbooks, each with a different title, all based on the adventures of the Landis family. This series has a number of excellent features: all exercises based on continuous story, clear keys for self-checking, diagnostic tests preceding each unit, separate mastery tests, pupil progress charts. (Harcourt, Brace, 1945)

Living Language. (Blumenthal, Frank, Zahner) This four-book series (9–12) attempts to relate language closely to everyday living. A major emphasis is upon giving the student insight into how language works, what it does to other people, and how it may be critically evaluated. (Harcourt, Brace, 1953)

Living Your English. (Colton, Davis, and Hanshaw) A four-book workbook series for grades 9 to 12 designed for low-ability groups. Publishers claim vocabulary and sentence structure are on sixth-grade level, but materials are aimed at teen-age interest level. Devices for self-correcting, charting scores. (D. C. Heath, 1953)

The Macmillan English Series. (Pollock *et al*) A series of books designed for grades 2–12. The English language is treated as flexible and growing, with emphasis in its use on clarity and appropriateness. Organization is flexible to allow the teacher to relate various parts of the books to whatever type of curriculum is in use. (Macmillan, 1955)

An Oral Language Practice Book. (Mabel Cage) More than two hundred pages of drills on standard usage. Instruction by means of pattern charts. Intended by author for paired practice, these exercises may be adapted to other instructional methods. Low vocabulary level makes book particularly suitable for slow learners. Keyed for self-instruction. (Harr Wagner Publishing Co., San Francisco, 1952)

Vocational English. (Jochen and Shapiro) Illustrations, motivating materials, examples and drill sentences all refer directly to shop work. The language and instructional material are simple, and the book could be used for individual lessons and small-group work in classes that are not exclusively vocational. Modern point of view: good coverage of limited number of useful skills. (Globe Book Co., 1952)

The Way to Write. (Flesch and Lass) For mature students, an excellent composition text that talks to students in their language. Part I includes how to start, how to get ideas, how to put ideas in order, how to find right word, how to make writing fun to read. Part II is a fairly conservative usage handbook. (Harper & Brothers, 1947)

Chapter IV — Listening

Do you spend much classroom time in talking?

— Do you sometimes have to repeat announcements and directions?

— Do you occasionally deplore a lack of courteous attention in class and assemblies?

— Has an informal survey convinced you that your pupils spend more time in listening than in reading, writing, or speaking?

— Do you have some poor readers who must depend largely on what they can learn from listening during class discussion?

— Are speech activities — conversations, group discussions, reports, interviews, roundtables— playing a large part in your program?

— Do you use recordings and films as teaching aids?

— Do your pupils spend more time in front of the television set these days than behind a "good book"?

A Partial List of Skills for Listening

Purposefully and Accurately

- Understanding meaning of words from context
- Listening to answer to question
- Listening to question with intent of answering
- Listening for main ideas
- Listening for details
- Understanding relationship of details to main points
- Following steps in directions
- Following sequence in
  - — plot development
  - — character development
  - — speaker's argument
- Recognizing speaker's purpose
- Recognizing speaker's plan or pattern
- Recognizing repetition of same idea in different words
- Listening to repeat what has been heard
- Taking notes and outlining

Critically

- Distinguishing between fact and opinion
- Distinguishing between emotive and report language
- Detecting bias and prejudice
- Evaluating speaker's argument
- Recognizing propaganda
- Drawing inferences and making judgments
- Checking misinterpretations by asking intelligent questions
- Understanding sales pressure

Appreciatively

- Listening to visualize
- Listening for rhythms of speech
- Recognizing tone and mood
- Appreciating speaker's style
- Interpreting character from dialogue
- Understanding effect on listeners of speaker's vocal qualities and gestures
- Understanding effect of audience on listener's reactions

If you have nodded an emphatic *yes* to most of these questions, then you are ready to admit that:

— in school and out, your pupils need the ability to listen with attention, with purpose, and with discrimination

— the listening habits of your pupils can be improved

— listening deserves a place with reading, writing, and speaking in a well-rounded language arts program.

Listening in the Total Program

Today most teachers are learning not to give an assignment in reading without first making sure that pupils have both a purpose for reading and the necessary skills for succeeding. Yet how many good teachers are still exhorting their students to "Listen!" as though anyone who can hear knows how to listen! It would be just as reasonable to suppose that because children talk before they come to school they need no training in how to speak.

As teachers realize the importance of direct instruction in how to listen, they are beginning to adapt many of the proved methods in other language arts areas to the teaching of listening. They begin by making a thorough analysis of the processes involved in listening. Fortunately, experience with teaching reading is immediately useful in defining listening skills. Since reading and listening are both instruments of "intake," almost every reading skill has its counterpart in listening. The similarities between the two not only make the initial job of analysis easier for the teacher; they make it possible to combine instruction in reading and listening in such a way that, very often, skills in both may be reinforced by practice in either.

In teaching literature, for example, the same broad objectives are served by both reading and listening. One builds tastes and appreciation through the study of fine literature of the past and present. For these same purposes the study of motion pictures, tele-

vision, radio, and plays is no less effective. Studying stereotypes in horse operas and soap dramas is one of the many ways to approach an understanding of character portrayal in Shakespeare and Dickens.

The values of listening activities as an aid to enriching the literature program are apparent in the average classroom. They are even more apparent in classes of slow learners where listening can be more than an aid. In these classes it is often a substitute for reading, especially when acquaintance with our literary heritage would require greater skill in reading than these pupils possess. Accordingly, some teachers of slow learners use an aural approach almost exclusively in developing literature programs for these pupils. Through recordings, motion pictures, and much oral reading by the teacher, pupils of limited reading competence may participate in the vicarious experiences that books open up to the proficient reader.

In many other ways, instruction in listening can be related to the rest of the language arts program so that more than one objective is served by a single lesson in listening. For example, it is possible for students to improve in writing or speaking as a result of instruction in listening. Pupils who have learned to listen for the speaker's purpose, to retain his main ideas, and follow his plan have acquired skills that are applicable in their own writing or speaking.

Still another type of integration exists between speaking and listening. Every situation in which pupils use speech is an opportunity for teaching listening skills. A class really participates in oral reports, group discussions, and interviews only when all pupils are listening accurately, responsively, critically, and with a well-directed purpose.

Listening is not, then, a whole new body of skills and concepts to be added to English courses that are already bursting at the seams. Like reading, listening is a tool subject, without specific content of its own; and like reading, the listening skills should also be taught in any course where they are used. However, because English teachers are chiefly responsible for the communication skills, they assume the main obligation to teach reading and listening.

Listening skills cannot be left to chance. The parallel between reading and listening that makes the interchange of techniques and materials possible is a boon to busy teachers, but the differences between the two underscore the need for specific attention to each of them. Listening differs from reading in the following respects:

- Most listening situations preclude any opportunities to review. Lack of attention results in irretrievable loss of meaning.
- In reading, words alone convey meaning. In listening, meaning may be colored by vocal qualities, facial expressions, and gestures as well as by words.
- Silent reading is a solitary pursuit. Listening frequently takes place in groups, where the reactions of the audience may affect the response of individual listeners.

These differences suggest that listening may in fact be a more complex process than reading. Certainly, before pupils can depend upon listening as an effective tool for learning, they need to understand the process and to develop proficiency in it. Yet pupils are now using listening

as an avenue to information and entertainment, and using it badly. The fact that inefficient habits are strongly intrenched is all the more reason for giving listening a place in the language arts program.

Suggestions for Teaching Listening

The suggestions offered here are of two kinds: sample devices and techniques for the development of specific skills; activities in which listening skills are used. The list is offered as a compilation of suggestions that may prove stimulating in two ways: (1) in the construction of a more complete series of exercises for the systematic teaching of one or more listening skills; (2) in selecting activities for any integrated teaching unit.

Because listening skills are often defined in the professional literature as purposeful, accurate, critical, and responsive or appreciative, these headings are used in organizing the suggestions offered here. But no clear-cut line sets apart one type of listening from the rest. All listening must be accurate and purposeful whether it is responsive or critical, and developing appreciations in listening, as in reading, is a continuous process running concurrently with the development of each of the other skills.

Purposeful and Accurate Listening

Developing Simple Comprehension Skills

Vocabulary Skills

1. Before reading a selection or playing a recording, give students a list of words for which they are to listen. After listening, ask them to tell you how each word was used in context. Words of multiple meanings, used each time with a different shade of meaning, make this type of exercise more challenging.

2. To increase awareness of unknown words and to foster the idea of demanding meaning in everything they hear, say to pupils before reading a selection: "Stop me when I come to a word you do not understand."

3. Using context clues to determine word meaning is as important in listening as in reading. Oral lessons demonstrating various types of clues will sharpen listening habits and increase skill in using context in both listening and reading. See the discussion of context clues in Constance McCullough's article in the *English Journal* (January, 1952).

4. Prepare a series of statements that contain contradictions and patent absurdities. Students will enjoy making up exercises of this type and tape recording them to simulate radio announcements. The class may be divided into teams and points awarded for the number of absurdities spotted. A simple exercise of this type: "The Washington express leaves at 7:30 A.M. Enjoy a relaxed supper in our station dining room before train time."

Recalling in Sequence

The old game "In Grandmother's Trunk" can teach the importance of listening accurately and recalling in sequence and, at the same time, enliven the last ten minutes of Friday's sixth period. You may have to change grandma's trunk to Fibber McGee's closet, but the rules are the same. The first pupil states, "In Fibber's closet was a badminton racket." Subsequent pupils repeat in proper order the objects named and add another.

Following Directions

1. Have pupils write original directions which may be carried out by

using pencil and paper. For example: "On the third line from the bottom of the paper write in capital letters the name of the day preceding by two the date of the junior prom." Collect these directions and read selected ones aloud, once only, as pupils carry out the orders. Have pupils correct each other's papers and analyze reasons for errors.

2. Or have pupils write a series of directions for acts that can be performed in the classroom. One pupil then reads aloud five steps that another is to perform after he has heard all five. Pupils will think of directions like these: (1) Go to bulletin board and place thumb tack in top left corner. (2) Face the blackboard and say first seven letters of the alphabet. (3) Open and close door. (4) Place dictionary on window shelf. (5) Return to your seat passing teacher's desk.

3. You can point up the serious need for following spoken directions accurately by reading aloud Air Raid Warning instructions and safety rules. Have pupils listen to directions once, then reproduce them in writing accurately and in sequence.

Listening for Main Ideas

Selections to be read to class may come from three sources: appropriately graded reading-skills texts, newspapers and magazines, and textbooks in the content subjects. Both the material read and the response required should become progressively difficult. Pupils may be asked to respond by:

— selecting title for paragraph from several suggested
— writing own titles
— identifying main idea from several given
— stating main idea in own words

To lend variety to this type of practice, you may have students express main ideas as headlines, news flashes, telegrams, or S-O-S messages when the content suggests such devices.

Listening for Information

1. Slow learners especially acquire much information through listening. To give controlled practice in this skill, present information in one of the following ways: (1) Read aloud informational articles of the type found in the *Reader's Digest* or *Scholastic*. (2) Use tape recordings of pupils' reports. Those made in one class may be used in another. It is a good idea to build a collection on tape of interesting factual reports just for this purpose. (3) Present a sound film of the informational rather than the story type. Choose one that relates to a topic currently being studied either in English or another class. In any case, be sure that the information has interest value. Tell the pupils before listening that they will be asked to write a number of questions based on what they hear. Use these questions for a quiz session in which points are awarded to teams for correct answers. If it proves necessary, re-present the informational article to check accuracy.

2. Tape record from radio five-minute news and sports broadcasts. Have pupils listen, then write down all the news items they can remember. (If you use this exercise once a week for several weeks, you will want a series of five-minute broadcasts on one tape. A pupil could record a series of news broadcasts from radio during school time. Label and save the tape for future use. It is not essential for the purposes of this exercise that the news be up to date.)

Developing Organizational Skills

Following the organization of a speech is more difficult than reading to follow the author's pattern. You cannot, by skimming, identify the pattern ahead of time. It is all the more important, therefore, to acquire skill in recognizing conventional patterns of organization, transitional phrases, and summarizing statements. By systematic instruction students can be helped to acquire these skills.

Learning to Summarize

When pupils have gained skill in listening for main ideas of single paragraphs, read aloud longer units, gradually increasing the number of paragraphs in each unit. Again, begin by asking pupils to identify correct titles from several given. Then require pupils to write their own titles. Before asking for a summary of a long unit, stop at the end of each paragraph to ask for the main idea. When pupils are ready to summarize whole article, you may say at first, "List three main points of this article." Finally, have pupils write, without help, summarizing paragraphs of the whole oral presentation.

Recognizing Illustrative Details

Speakers, even more than writers, use illustrative details, anecdotes, and stories. Sometimes they use jokes simply to warm up an audience, sometimes to illustrate their point. Careless listeners often remember the jokes and miss the message. To increase skill in recognizing details, tell pupils before they listen what the main points are and have them listen for illustrations of these points. Whenever possible, use actual speeches. You can build a collection suitable for teaching listening by combing the anthologies, saving newspaper texts of speeches, and asking speakers for copies of their texts. Speeches on tape or disks make the listening situation more realistic.

Following Speaker's Plan

Experienced speakers often tell their audience at the beginning what points they will make, emphasizing salient points with attention-catching devices. "Tonight we shall consider the three C's, courtesy, conscience, and character." They reiterate and summarize. They signal before turning into a new subdivision. Pupils can learn to recognize these earmarks of organization, and in doing so, may become better speakers as well as listeners. You can help them by discussing "signal" words and phrases like *in the first place, as a final point, in summary, moreover, in addition, on the other hand, and still another.* Then read aloud well-organized materials and have pupils list transitional expressions or raise their hands when they recognize a turning point. As another exercise, break a speech after the introductory paragraphs and have pupils predict the speaker's main points.

Taking Notes and Outlining

Be sure to have pupils distinguish between oral presentations that lend themselves to formal outlining and those that do not. Use carefully organized materials for outlining; use unstructured speeches and group discussions for note-taking.

Because it is more difficult, outlining a speech should follow instruction in outlining written materials. Begin with easy stages even though pupils may have progressed beyond this point in outlining from reading. Before presenting a well-organized

article, give pupils a partial outline which they are to complete by supplying missing details or missing main ideas. After sufficient practice, pupils may outline without these aids. Teachers sometimes tape-record an article as they present it to class. The next day, as pupils correct their outline, the recording serves as a check on accuracy. Other teachers prefer to write model outlines for pupils to compare with their own efforts.

Taking notes on an unstructured speech, interview, or group discussion requires greater skill than outlining. With recorded practice materials, you can forewarn students of the lines the discussion will follow. At first it may be best to have pupils record the discussions that frequently appear in such publications as *Scholastic*; later use texts of radio and television programs which broadcasting companies will supply. Tape recordings of discussion programs taken directly from radio and TV can be used next. Guides for note-taking can be as simple as a paper divided into two columns headed Arguments For and Arguments Against. They may become as complex as a chart with the following headings: X's proposals; Y's proposals; Y's attack on X's proposal; X's defense; Y's rebuttal; differences in Z's proposal; digressions; points of agreement; summary. Pupils can learn to do this difficult kind of note-taking best with the help of a planned sequence of exercises in which the props are gradually removed.

Activities

Opportunities for listening purposefully and accurately are found in the following activities:

- Reports on out-of-class listening experiences: radio and TV speeches and discussions, sermons, lectures. Preview for students important broadcasts and set up purposes for listening. For example, "Listen to discover the President's answer to the problem of farm subsidies," or "Tomorrow tell us five new words you learned from listening to President Eisenhower's speech."
- "Post mortems" of assembly speakers. Three pupils may report on same speaker. Have class analyze differences in reports. At another time suggest that half the class take notes on assembly speaker; others listen attentively. Compare recall of each group. Take your own notes on the speech and compare your notes with pupils'.
- Discussion of different patterns of organization heard in speeches
- Interviews conducted in class and outside
- Classroom visitors
- Organization of class as club
- Group discussions. One member of group should act as secretary to report results of discussion to rest of class.

Providing Practice in Critical Listening

Distinguishing between Fact and Opinion

Exercises to help pupils to develop this skill in their reading may also be presented orally. Since published materials are rare, it is economical to combine instruction in reading critically with aural exercises that serve the same purpose. The first step is a series of simple statements of fact and opinion for pupils to identify. As a next step prepare a series of paragraphs in which pupils can find facts embedded in opinion.

Advertisements are good sources. You may have students rephrase the advertisement omitting expressions of opinion.

Recognizing Emotive Language

1. A discussion of words that appeal to the emotions or the senses should precede a study of radio and TV commercials. Pupils should listen for and discuss the purposes of such techniques of sales pressure as:

— attention-arresting devices like echo chambers, whistles, metronomes, the spelling of key words, and repetition of words in a variety of tones
— singing commercials
— hollow phrases, glittering generalities, slogans and catchwords
— psychological appeals in advertising

2. Recordings of political speeches may be used in many ways to awaken pupils to the need for listening critically. Listing the emotive words and phrases used by the speaker is probably the simplest exercise. If recordings are not available for classroom use, at-home listening to "live" speeches can substitute for, and in any case should supplement, in-class listening.

3. A device which emphasizes the importance of accurate listening and also the effect of emotive language is suggested by Althea Beery.[1] Four or five pupils leave the room. While they are out, the teacher shows class "Rumor Clinic," a three-frame filmstrip distributed by the Anti-Defamation League, 12 Fifth Avenue, New York. One pupil then reports what he has seen to one of the pupils who left the room. He, in turn, reports to the next, and so on. Then all five pupils tell the class their versions. The class analyzes why the reports differ and discusses how prejudices may have slanted understanding. Do we hear what we want to hear? Do the same words mean different things to different people?

4. On the same date, record two news broadcasts, one that illustrates factual reporting and one that illustrates analysis and commentary on this news. Have pupils bring in exact quotations to compare language used in the two broadcasts and discuss the different effects of each on the listener.

5. Recordings like *I Can Hear It Now* serve as a good basis for discussing varieties of appeal in public speaking. Pupils can note that appeal to an audience depends on both diction (choice of language) and vocal qualities. Examples of rabble-rousing techniques, the folksy approach, spread-eagle oratory, and well-organized logical argument, to name a few, can be found on a single recording of speakers of the last three decades.

Checking on Reliability of Speaker

1. Have pupils keep a record of persons appearing on forums, panels, and roundtables, together with the topics they were called on to discuss. Using *Who's Who in America* and the pooled information of the class, pupils judge speakers on two points: How much experience has he had in the subject on which he spoke? Does anything in his experience suggest that he might be biased?

2. A *Town Meeting of the Air* program of a few years ago provides an excellent basis for investigating speakers'

[1] Althea Beery, "Listening Activities in the Elementary School." *Elementary English Review*, 23:69-79, February, 1946.

authority and bias. "What's Wrong with the Comics?" is grist for the English teacher's mill. It is reprinted in *The Challenge of Ideas* (Odyssey Press, 1950). Present the script orally, of course, with pupils taking parts of speakers.

3. A speaker's references to authority should also be checked. We are probably more willing to accept a vague reference in speech than in writing and often are beguiled into accepting as fact any statement introduced by: *they say, it is believed, informed sources report, intelligent people say, experts agree.* Pupils should note such expressions in political oratory and news commentaries and be ready to ask, "*Who* says? *What* informed sources?"

4. Before a political address in which your students are interested, have them draw up a check list for rating the speaker. This should include questions on the speaker's use of emotive language and propaganda devices, his diction and vocal qualities, the organization of his speech, and his authority to speak on his subject.

Activities

Good material for teaching critical listening can grow out of assignments like those suggested below. Save the best examples to use with next year's class. When practical, keep samples on tape.

- — Prepare a commercial that will sell the school paper, promote a fund-raising scheme, or increase attendance at a football game.
- — Give an eye-witness account of a school event. Use report language only. Then cover the same news story, this time bringing in your own opinions.
- — Make a collection of propaganda devices you have heard recently. Try to find examples of the following: name-calling, card-stacking, glittering generalities, flag-waving. (Such an assignment presupposes the study of these techniques, probably through a combined reading-listening approach.)
- — Hold a mock trial in which the class, as jury, will have opportunity to distinguish between fact and opinion, to be wary of emotive language and unfair appeals to the emotions.

Appreciative Listening

Encouraging Responsive Listening

1. Some teachers use the following simple device to show the need for sympathetic listening. Pupils come to class prepared to tell a number of "good stories" — anecdotes, interesting facts from their reading, family jokes. As each pupil talks informally the others listen for leads that suggest another story. The effort to keep the conversational ball rolling becomes a game, with points awarded for smooth transitions from story to story. Teachers give special credit to pupils who provide a bridge between two speakers' stories.

2. A plus-value of group story telling is the contribution it makes to responsive listening. As part of a unit on folklore, pupils may spin their own yarns, each one adding a sentence or two to help the story grow. A record of the first efforts can be edited later for the finished product. Similarly, dramatizing a story or preparing a radio script, with the actors developing their lines orally, not only gives effective practice in listening courteously but also stimulates creative thinking.

3. Probably the most profitable kind of note-taking is a record of one's own thoughts while listening, not the speaker's. Give students practice in note-taking of this kind. Before reading a selection, tell them that they are to think, while listening, of other topics they would like to investigate, questions they would like to ask the speaker, and ways in which they can use ideas presented. The famous lecture by Russell H. Conwell, "Acres of Diamonds," is particularly appropriate for this lesson because of its theme (making ideas work) and its wealth of stimulating anecdotes. Other shorter selections, chosen for high interest value, may be found in current magazines. Supplying further illustrations, looking for parallels and contrasts, relating new ideas to something already known are other types of elaborative thinking that may be developed through listening.

Developing Tastes and Appreciation in Listening

In general, teachers approach the problem of developing tastes and appreciations in listening in two ways: (1) they use audio-visual aids in the classroom to supplement the teaching of literature; (2) they encourage discrimination in out-of-class listening by setting up criteria for judging radio, television and motion pictures.

Two problems complicate the use of audio-visual aids: how to obtain materials and how to make most effective use of them. Every school should have a library of recordings, but few schools do. It will take long-range planning and careful selecting before your needs are filled. If you are a teacher of general course students, don't overweight your requisitions with poetry recordings. Choose a few good recordings, particularly of modern poets reading their works, but reserve some of the budget for the many fine new recordings of prose works. If possible, have a student committee assist in making selections, judging possible purchases for their appeal to different levels of taste and for the technical quality of the disks. While you are waiting for the budget to be stretched, you can:

- borrow records from public libraries, state departments of education, and university audio-visual centers
- rent transcriptions from the U. S. Office of Education and Library of Congress
- build your own library of tape recordings by taking programs from radio and television. In spite of complaints about the poverty of radio and TV offerings, many superior performances are available of plays and dramatized novels which are traditionally part of the school literature program.

Occasionally school administrators frown on audio-visual aids because they have the mistaken notion that films and recordings are used for entertainment, not learning. Actually, of course, if used effectively, recordings and films are as important tools to learning as books, and aural lessons should be developed with as much care as well-taught reading lessons. That means adequate preparation before the presentation to set a purpose for listening, to anticipate vocabulary difficulties, and to provide background; the use of study guides for improving comprehension; and replaying afterwards to reinforce learning.

Many teachers ask whether they should play the records of *Macbeth*, for instance, before or after the class reads the play. The answer depends on the purpose of the presentation. Is it to aid the interpretation? Then recording should coincide with reading. Is it to awaken interest and aid over-all comprehension of the plot? Highlights may be presented before reading. Is it to take the place of reading the play for some pupils? Then the recordings need interpretation and explanation just as the written play does. Probably you would not want to play the whole recording but to choose the highlights and fill in gaps with summary. Do not hesitate to interrupt the playing and to repeat important portions. Since your purpose is to increase pupils' pleasure in Shakespeare, not to make them Shakespearean scholars, your teaching and study guide will focus on large issues and will constantly relate the play to pupils' experience.

A teacher who uses recordings as substitutes for reading in a remedial English class approaches a recording of a story like "There Isn't Time Now" just as he would if the medium were print. In a 45-minute period, he spends 15 minutes for pre-listening discussion to stimulate pupils to think along lines which will help them understand the story to come. The discussion establishes listening readiness, but does not give away the plot. After the recording (15 minutes), the balance of the period is devoted to talking over ideas derived from the story.[1]

[1] See Long Island City, New York: *Successful Experiences in English*, 1951. Unpaged. Section on "Using Recordings in English 2RE" by Samuel Beckoff.

Opportunities for teaching such skills as visualizing the scene, following sequence of plot and character development, and interpreting character from dialogue are apparent. When one of these is the purpose of the lesson, study guides should contain such directions as:

— Describe the setting. Draw a design of the set as if this play were given on stage. Cast film stars in roles of leading characters. Describe the mental picture you saw when you heard these lines —
— Arrange the following sentences in the proper order to summarize the plot.
— Tell when you began to realize that Bill was the real villain.

Have you considered the possibilities of collateral listening assignments to replace some of your "outside reading" assignments? It seems no less logical to ask for a report on a motion picture, play, or TV drama than it is to ask for reports on reading.

Appreciating Radio and Television

Activities that appear frequently in units on radio and television are summarized below.

— Pupils prepare rating sheets and use them in at-home listening.
— Pupils conduct poll of listening habits in school.
— Pupils keep television log on blackboard or bulletin board, reporting programs seen and rating them.
— Volunteer listening committees keep class informed on good programs scheduled for coming week.
— Pupils discuss programs for children and adults, compare parents' and little brothers' tastes with theirs.

— Pupils write letters to studios praising excellent productions.
— Pupils report on reading they have done as a result of watching television.
— Class visits radio or TV studio.
— Class takes over local station to present play, panel, or book reviews.
— A "hit parade" of favorite programs drawn up at intervals of three or four months may show changes in tastes.
— A radio and television review column may be written for school paper; or a fan magazine may be published by class.
— Pupils discuss balancing their leisure-time activities to give fair proportion of time to televiewing.

Promoting a Desire to Improve Listening

One of the best ways to promote good listening habits is to give pupils a reason for listening, something worth listening to, and skill in listening well. All the techniques discussed on preceding pages are directed toward these ends. Nevertheless, because the idea that listening skills can be improved will strike many pupils as revolutionary (some educators still find the idea novel), it will be profitable to spend some time in discussing the listening process and establishing the desire to improve skills. Discussion may center around such questions as:

— How much time is spent in listening? For what purposes?
— Is listening or reading the better avenue for learning? for entertainment?
— Is the effect on the listener different in these situations: listening in his own home to speech on radio or TV? listening with group of friends? listening to speaker in hall or arena? Why do television performers prefer to play before studio audiences? Why is laughter sometimes dubbed into transcribed programs?
— How do you listen when you know you are expected to answer? In social situations, when is accurate listening imperative?

As a motivational device, teachers and pupils may cooperate on a "Let's Listen" week. Activities during this week may include the following:

— Pupils agree not to ask for repetitions of directions or explanations, establishing a "fine" when pact is broken.
— In every class, oral programs are emphasized, with pupils rather than teachers taking the lead in talking.
— Pupils make posters illustrating good and bad listening habits.
— Pupils conduct experiments in listening; for example, compare comprehension in reading and listening.
— Room committees volunteer to improve "listening climate" by reducing distracting noises.

Measuring Abilities in Listening

One way to decide which listening skills need emphasis in your class is to test your pupils' present abilities. A standardized test of listening skills is available (see *Selected List of Materials*), or informal tests may be constructed. The difficulty of items in an informal listening test should approximate the reading level of the pupils tested. For example, items testing ability to grasp main idea may be drawn from reading texts covering the range of reading abilities within your class. Charting the results of this informal testing will show you and, more importantly, your pupils where individual

strengths and weaknesses lie. The gains in motivation that result when pupils see objective evidence of their needs make this approach more effective than subjective analysis alone. However, your observations of pupils' attentiveness, their responses to questions, and participation in discussions may also serve as a basis for determining which skills to emphasize.

A second type of measurement — the evaluation of pupil growth in listening skills, habits, and appreciations — continues through the year. The teacher participates in such evaluation and keeps his own records of pupil growth, but the most satisfactory evaluation is that undertaken by the pupil himself. Check lists for various types of listening activities are drawn up by the class, and every pupil rates himself and occasionally rates a classmate. These subjective evaluations are just as important in listening as they are in writing and speaking. The development of one type of listening check list is described below.

In anticipation of small-group discussions, the teacher asks the class to consider the role of the listener. How can he help the speaker? What good and bad habits in listening have pupils observed? What kind of setting provides the best background for attentive listening? Out of this discussion comes a list of standards to be observed in speaking-listening situations. These criteria are written on a class chart and, phrased as self-evaluating questions, duplicated for each pupil. A check list for discussion groups is offered as a sample:

How Well Do I Listen in Discussions?

— Do I help to improve listening conditions by minimizing distractions?
— Do I look directly at the speaker? Do I show him I am interested?
— Do I ask questions which help the speaker to clarify his meaning?
— Does my attention wander?
— Am I so intent on my own contribution to the discussion that I do not concentrate on others' contributions?
— If the discussion tends to ramble, do I help tactfully to turn it back to the point?
— When it is necessary to disagree with a speaker, do I do so courteously?
— Do I take notes to aid my attention and comprehension?
— Am I ready to summarize the main points?

Selected List of Recordings

Speeches

No Man Is an Island. 5 12" records. 78 rpm. Audio Education. (55 Fifth Avenue, New York.) A collection of speeches from Pericles to Zola on the interdependence of men.

I Can Hear It Now. 3 vol., each 12" records. 33⅓ rpm. Columbia. (799 Seventh Avenue, New York 19.) Vol. I: 1933–45; Vol. II: 1945–49; Vol. III: 1919–32. Actual voices of Churchill, Truman, Marshall, Wilson, Harding, Coolidge, Roosevelt, etc.

In the American Tradition. 78 rpm. Decca. (Bridgeport, Conn.) Jefferson's first inaugural address, Lincoln's second inaugural, Wilson's address to Peace Conference, F. D. Roosevelt's first War Address to Congress. Narrated by Orson Welles.

Masterpieces of Literature. Vol. II, 78 rpm. Columbia. Includes speeches of Edward Everett, Thomas Jefferson, Theodore Roosevelt, Daniel Webster, Woodrow Wilson.

Voices of Freedom. 33⅓ rpm. Educational Services. (1702 K Street, NW, Washington.) The voices include those of William Jennings Bryan, William Howard Taft, Thomas Edison, Will Rogers, Roosevelt, and Truman.

General MacArthur's Address to Congress. 4 records, 78 rpm., or 1 LP. Linguaphone. (30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.) The address of April 19, 1951, following MacArthur's return from Korea.

Lincoln's Gettysburg and Second Inaugural Addresses. 78 rpm. Linguaphone. Two readings by Raymond Massey.

Speeches of Franklin D. Roosevelt. 2 albums of 12 records. 78 rpm. Linguaphone. Excerpts from twenty speeches.

Winston Churchill's Famous Broadcast Speeches. 78 rpm. Gramophone. (18 East 48th Street, New York.) Four wartime speeches: "In a Solemn Hour," "This Was Their Finest Hour," "The War of the Unknown Warriors," and "Every Man to His Post."

The Quick and the Dead. 33⅓ or 78 rpm. RCA. (Camden, New Jersey.) Two volumes: "The Atom Bomb" and "The Hydrogen Bomb." A recording of the dramatic series of broadcasts produced by NBC, with Bob Hope as Everyman and a host of leading Americans. Dramatization, narration, and excerpts from speeches.

Novels, Short Stories, Essays

The Awful Fate of Melpomenus Jones and *My Financial Career.* 78 rpm. (Popular Science, 353 Fourth Avenue, New York.) Partially dramatized versions of two well-known essays by the Canadian humorist, Stephen Leacock.

The Cask of Amontillado. 2 records. 78 rpm. Audio Education. Sidney Greenstreet in a dramatization of Poe's tale.

Lost Horizon. 3 records. 78 rpm. Audio Education. Ronald Coleman and supporting cast in dramatization of James Hilton's novel.

The Snow Goose. 3 records. 78 rpm. Audio Education. Paul Gallico's story of timeless friendship built around the rescue and return of a lost goose. Narrated by Herbert Marshall.

Books Bring Adventure. Series No. 2. 7 records. 78 rpm. Association of Junior Leagues of America. (422½ W. 46th Street, New York 19.) For younger pupils, introductions to fourteen popular books, partly dramatized, partly narrated.

Stories to Remember. 7 records. 33⅓ rpm. Institute for Democratic Education, Inc. (212 Fifth Avenue, New York 10.) First-rate dramatizations of seven short stories on theme of intercultural understanding. Includes "The Lesson," "Yes, Your Honesty!," "Seasoned Timber," "There Isn't Time Now," and "That Greek Dog."

Poetry and Plays

John Brown's Body. 33⅓ rpm. Children's Reading Service. (1078 St. John's Place, Brooklyn, N. Y.) Tyrone Power, Judith Anderson, Raymond Massey recording Stephen Vincent Benet's poem as presented on Broadway.

Six Poetry Albums. 3 records, each album. 78 rpm. Distributed by American Book Company. Read by well-known actors, poems are well selected to meet different tastes and please different age groups. Traditional selections, but also "Blue Tail Fly," "Leetle Giorgio Washington," two poems by Jesse Stuart, "Dunkirk."

Cyrano de Bergerac. 1 record. 33⅓ rpm. Children's Reading Service. Jose Ferrer in a role he has made his own.

Selected List of Materials

Standardized Test

Brown-Carlsen Listening Comprehension Test: Range: Grades 9–13. Time: 50 minutes. Designed to measure five listening skills: immediate recall, following directions, recognizing transitions, recognizing word meanings, and lecture comprehension. The last category measures the ability to listen for details, get the central idea, draw inferences, understand the organization and note degree of relevancy. Test has interesting possibilities for motivating skills instruction, analyzing group needs and abilities, or measuring improvement. (World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York, 1953.)

Audio-Visual Listings and Sources

Annotated List of Phonograph Records (Kindergarten — Senior High School), Warren S. Freeman, ed. Published annually, this is a general list of recordings for any content subject. Gives prices. (Children's Reading Service, 1078 St. John's Place, Brooklyn 13, N. Y.)

Audio-Visual Aids for the English Teacher. A comprehensive listing of aids for literature program as well as other phases of language arts. Annotated. (Educational and Recreational Guides, Inc., 1630 Springfield Avenue, Maplewood, N. J. 25 cents.)

Audio-Visual Guide. A monthly magazine that includes photoplay studies, latest news about A-V teaching materials, equipment, and methods. (1630 Springfield Avenue, Maplewood, N. J.)

Books to Help Build International Understanding, Beust and Broderick, includes a listing of recordings. (Federal Security Agency, Office of Education, Washington 25, 1952)

Catalogue of Radio Recordings. Listing of recordings and transcriptions that may be borrowed from Federal Radio Education Committee, Federal Security Agency. 25 cents.

Listenables and Lookables. A descriptive listing of network radio and television programs, published September through May, gives advance information on programs you may want to tape record. (110 Elliot Street, Passaic, N. J.)

The News Letter published by Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, gives information about radio, press, motion pictures, and audio-visual aids. Edited by Edgar Dale. Monthly. 25 cents to be placed on mailing list.

Office of Audio-Visual Education, Massachusetts State Department of Education, has large collection of master tapes and transcriptions. Schools send in blank tape and recording is made without charge except for postage. Ask for list of titles. (200 Newbury Street, Boston 16) Many other state departments of education have record libraries.

Recordings for School Use, Gertrude Broderick, editor. Ratings by classroom teachers of recordings and transcriptions. Very helpful annotations. (U. S. Office of Education)

Recordings for Teaching Literature and Language in the High School, Arno Jewett. In addition to extensive bibliography (not annotated), this pamphlet contains valuable discussion of how to use recordings, how to select and store them, and suggestions for activities for improving communication. (Bulletin 1952, No. 19, U. S. Office of Education. For sale by Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25. 25 cents)

Pamphlets and Articles

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Hadley, Edyth W., "Techniques in Teaching High School Students to Listen." *English Journal 40:* 369–72, September, 1951.

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Hook, J. N., "Developing Good Listeners." *Journal of Education 132:* 110, 112–114, April, 1949.

Nichols, Ralph G., "Listening Instruction in the Secondary School." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals 36:* 158–174, May, 1952.

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Sterner, Alice P., *A Course of Study in Radio and Television Appreciation*. (Educational and Recreational Guides, Maplewood, N. J., 1950)

Whittaker, Charlotte, "Core Unit: Theater, Movies, Radio and Television." *Clearing House 24:* 21–25, September, 1949.

Wilt, Miriam E., "The Teaching of Listening — and Why." Monograph No. 66. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson, 1951.

Teaching Guides: References to Listening

Columbia, South Carolina: *Suggestions for the Teaching of the Language Arts in the Twelve-Year School Program*, 1946. pp. 29–31; 46–48.

Denver, Colorado: *A Guide for Teaching the Language Arts, Kindergarten to Grade 12*, 1953. pp. 291–311.

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San Francisco Unified School District: *Classroom Practices in the Teaching of English*, 1952. pp. 68–69.

Tallahassee, Florida: *Experiencing the Language Arts*. State Department of Education Bulletin No. 34, 1948. pp. 89–113.

Chapter V — Opportunities for Enterprise in the Teaching of English

IN THE SPRING of 1953, the Warren Project conducted an investigation in fifteen high schools to measure students' reactions to current offerings in English.[1] The following report of this investigation presents a challenge to English teachers. It shows that much needs to be done to stimulate students' enthusiasm for a subject, which, according to this survey, they find useful but not appealing.

The outlook might be discouraging if teachers had to admit that they had done everything they could to sharpen the appeal of English instruction and had failed. But the report of current practices from this survey shows that we have not yet begun to tap the possibilities for introducing new content and new techniques. Of the 75 topics described in the questionnaire used in this study, only 29 are being given much attention. Of the 64 methods of teaching suggested in the questionnaire, only 16 are in common use. Fortunately, this program to which students react with something less than enthusiasm is not sacrosanct. Freed from the pressure of college entrance requirements, teachers of general students particularly can experiment boldly with new techniques for improving facility in language.

Furthermore, students are well motivated towards acquiring language abilities. This report gives a most encouraging picture of students' reactions to specific content. They want to improve their skill in almost all phases of the language arts. They balk at some of the methods of instruction, not at the content (when this content is defined as skills and abilities).

So for teachers with a pioneering instinct, the following report is offered as a stimulus to creating more appealing, more productive teaching practices.

How Do Pupils Feel About English?

The survey of non-college-preparatory students' opinions about English began with a free-response questionnaire aimed at discovering what these pupils like and dislike in their English programs. A sampling of four hundred replies to this questionnaire reflected the lukewarm, unenthusiastic, sometimes hostile attitudes with which many terminal students regard English. These replies indicated also that high school pupils are capable of thoughtful, constructive criticism. It was felt that further probing into their opinions might reveal much information of interest to teachers who are re-examining English curricula for boys and girls whose formal education is likely to end in high school. Why do these students feel as they do about English? Do they reject the English program in toto? Do they accept some areas of English instruction more readily than others? Which areas do they consider most useful to them? How well disposed are they towards acquiring specific language skills? Are some methods of instruction more acceptable than others? If students are not enthusi-

[1] Margaret Early, *An Evaluation of the English Program by Non-College-Preparatory Students in Grades Ten and Twelve.* Boston University School of Education: doctoral dissertation, unpublished, 1954.

astic about the content and methods with which they are familiar, can others be suggested of greater appeal?

To find answers to these questions, an objective questionnaire was constructed. Two hundred items were derived from a study of the recommendations of professional books and courses of study, the content of current language textbooks, and the replies of students to the free-response questionnaire. Five sections of the survey instrument gave students the opportunity: (1) to rate the usefulness of 75 language skills and abilities; (2) to show preference for 64 teaching-learning activities; (3) to express opinions about certain aspects of English instruction; (4) to rate English in comparison with other high school studies; (5) to evaluate eight major parts of English instruction.

Students were also asked to describe the kind of program which they were evaluating. They did so by indicating whether or not each of 75 skills and abilities had been taught in their English class during the current year. They showed the extent of practice of each of 64 teaching-learning activities by indicating whether they had experienced each activity *frequently*, *sometimes*, or *never*. The check lists of skills and of teaching-learning practices included items of two kinds: those endorsed by professional opinion and those which are not supported by modern educational theory and research. In determining whether or not a topic or activity had been included in the program of a particular class, the report of the class as a whole was considered.

The questionnaire was administered to 1,929 non-college-preparatory and 224 college-preparatory students in grades 10 and 12 in 107 classrooms in fifteen schools. These schools, twelve within a radius of thirty miles of Boston, two in western Massachusetts, and one in New Hampshire, represented three types of secondary school organization and ranged in size from one with a total enrollment of 116 to one with over two thousand students. The data were tabulated in four categories: the responses of boys and of girls in grades 10 and 12 in non-college curricula. A sub-study was made of the responses of the college-preparatory population.

Before considering the results of this investigation, the reader is reminded of the limitations inherent in the questionnaire method of gathering data. The nature of language is such that one can never be positive that a questionnaire has conveyed the same meaning to different respondents. The writer is aware that possibilities for misinterpretation exist in the questionnaire, but in preparing the instrument for this study every effort was made to minimize ambiguities and to present ideas clearly.

In view of the limitations of questionnaire studies, how trustworthy are the trends reported as a result of the present investigation? The answer to this question may be found by asking whether or not similar groups respond in the same way. When the responses of chance halves of the population were compared by means of rank order correlations, reliability coefficients computed on various sections of the data ran as high as .97 and never lower than .88, indicating how closely the groups confirmed one another.

In the limited space of this chapter, not all the findings of the study can be reported. Those of major interest

to teachers of non-college-preparatory students have been selected.

How Does English Rate With Other Subjects?

For an answer to this question, the students were asked to rank their first three choices among the subjects they liked best of the ten listed. They were also asked to show whether they liked or disliked each subject considered without reference to the others.

English is a fairly popular subject with girls. It is unpopular with boys. Few boys or girls claim it as their favorite subject, but girls give it *second* place when it is compared with other subjects in a first-, second-, and third-choice rating. However, English drops to *fourth* place when girls simply express like or dislike for each subject considered alone. Boys rate English *fifth* when the ranking is derived from the first, second, and third choices. When the ranking is based on per cent liking each subject considered alone, English ranks *ninth* among the ten subjects rated by boys. Tables 1 and 2 show the place of English among the subject preferences of tenth and twelfth grade boys and girls.

Why Do They Feel This Way?

A study of current practices in non-college English classes offers rather strong justification for pupils' low opinion of English. Students' complaints about the lack of variety in English instruction are substantiated both by the poverty of the offerings and the sameness of the program at the two grade levels examined in this study. Content and methods revealed by this study are summarized below under the major areas of the language arts.

Speaking

In the opinion of the students answering the questionnaires, a limited program is being offered in oral communication, a part of English instruction which students themselves consider highly useful. Of sixteen speech skills and abilities and six others applicable to both speaking and writing, only three were recognized by students as having been taught in 50 per cent or more of the classrooms at each grade level. These were how to pronounce words correctly, how to tell in pupil's own words something read, how to answer questions orally. Neglected in most classrooms, according to the pupils, are such important "how-to-

TABLE I. Subject Preferences of Tenth and Twelfth Grade Girls (in rank order, showing number and per cent liking)

Grade 10 Girls				Grade 12 Girls			
	Total	Like			Total	Like	
Subject	*No.*	*No.*	*%*	*Subject*	*No.*	*No.*	*%*
Commercial Subjects	456	408	89	Music	327	304	93
Music	409	351	86	Commercial Subjects	396	355	90
Home Economics	414	321	77	Home Economics	319	253	79
ENGLISH	502	340	68	ENGLISH	461	360	78
Science	462	294	64	Art	273	194	71
Art	356	226	63	Civics	350	223	64
Mathematics	454	248	55	Science	382	240	63
History	437	233	53	History	445	253	57
Foreign Language	324	172	53	Mathematics	415	216	52
Civics	317	163	51	Foreign Language	314	162	51

TABLE II. Subject Preferences of Tenth and Twelfth Grade Boys (in rank order, showing number and per cent liking)

Grade 10 Boys				Grade 12 Boys			
	Total	*Like*			*Total*	*Like*	
Subject	*No.*	*No.*	*%*	*Subject*	*No.*	*No.*	*%*
Manual Training	403	337	84	Manual Training	364	307	84
Science	444	356	80	Science	440	354	80
Commercial Subjects	425	328	77	History	459	348	76
History	442	311	70	Civics	406	270	67
Mathematics	449	300	67	Mathematics	453	301	66
Civics	338	202	60	Commercial Subjects	309	187	61
Art	342	201	59	Music	325	198	61
Music	356	194	54	Art	311	172	55
ENGLISH	474	230	49	ENGLISH	462	230	50
Foreign Language	277	80	29	Foreign Language	317	75	24

do-it" skills as how to develop a good speaking voice; how to get rid of slang; how to tell a story or joke; how to make reports and announcements and give directions and explanations; how to use the telephone; how to take part in introductions, conversations, and discussions. Pupils who are expected to give oral reports based on reading or experience are not taught how to remember what they want to say, how to find topics of interest or how to develop these topics in an interesting style, how to organize ideas, or how to use words exactly. Many teachers will protest that they do give attention to such matters. The point is, however, that not enough emphasis has been given to make an impression on the students. When pupils fail to recognize skills and abilities presumably intended as part of a course, very little learning can have taken place no matter how much teaching time was consumed.

By what methods are speaking skills and abilities taught? The most common activity in speech is the "oral topics period" when pupils give talks based on personal experiences or on something they have read. The next most frequently practiced technique is panel discussions, reported by 21 of the 97 non-college classrooms. Group discussions, meetings, interviews, illustrated talks, and socio-dramas, the use of the tape recorder and of evaluation check lists in speech were reported in fewer than ten classes at each grade level.

Writing

Both boys and girls showed little enthusiasm for writing as one of the eight branches of English instruction. (See Tables 3 and 4.) The writing program reported by these students is narrow and colorless. Of the 15 topics listed under Writing in the skills section of the questionnaire, six were reported in common use: personal experience themes, summaries, outlining, friendly letters, business letters, and social notes. The most common activity is writing themes to be corrected and graded by the teacher. Of the 97 non-college English classes taking part in this survey, none reported writing for a class book of any kind. Only four classes had written radio scripts; four had had experience in writing research papers; only six classes, all sophomore, had written for the school paper. A related activity, preparing bulletin board displays requiring captions and explanations, had been experienced in only four classrooms. Four senior classes and

one sophomore class reported that they had received help in English classes on papers written for science, history, or another course. While letter-writing is a common assignment in these classrooms, only three classes reported that their letters were mailed to actual recipients. When students are asked to write for practice instead of purpose, it is small wonder that their motivation is low.

Reading

Evidence of the teaching of reading skills is practically non-existent in the classrooms studied. In the check list of skills and abilities, twenty reading, reference, and study skills were suggested. The fact that finding main ideas is taught in 52 of the 97 classrooms gives hope that some type of reading skills program is under way in these classes. That these programs are little more than embryonic, however, is attested by the responses to an item in the classroom activities section of the questionnaire describing instruction adjusted to pupils' needs in reading. Only three of 97 classes reported that reading instruction is based on pretesting and small-group methods.

One other reading skill reported by a majority of the classes is "increasing my vocabulary," but only one technique for improving vocabulary is widely used: "You learn definitions of words on a list that your teacher assigns." Other devices such as finding new words in newspapers, keeping vocabulary notebooks, working in small groups to use new words, and studying the emotional power of language were reported by fewer than ten classrooms at each grade level.

Eight items in the questionnaire described reference skills. Not one of these received affirmative responses from more than half the classes. Yet facility in using the tools of reading is part of the equipment non-college students must have if they are to assume responsibility for self-education after they leave school.

Literature

Although reading skills may be neglected, the teaching of literature consumes a major portion of the program, if one may judge by the frequency with which activities involving literature were reported by the students. What approach to the teaching of literature is common in non-college classes? Analysis of literary types seems to predominate even in classes where students are not expected to pursue higher academic studies. Almost unanimously the students agreed that the common method employed was the piecemeal assignment: a specified number of pages to be read for homework, digested, and discussed the next day. Writing book reports, analyzing the form of short stories, studying poetic techniques, memorizing required lines of poetry, studying literature by types, and learning facts about authors' lives are practices of doubtful value in promoting a major objective of the literature program, which is, of course, love of good reading. Yet all but two of these practices were reported by more than half the classrooms. Students in fewer than 50 per cent of the classes said they were required to memorize poetry; in 31 classes, students reported that the study of poetry was concerned with form and techniques. A few more classes, 42 out of 97, reported the better practice of studying poetry with attention focused on ideas rather than on techniques.

Eight items in this section described activities advocated by experts in the teaching of English. Two of these were reported by more than 50 per cent of the classes: keeping records of pupils' personal reading; dramatizing plays. All other practices were reported by fewer than 50 per cent of the classes, some by very few. For example, very few classes thought that they had participated in a reading unit or had helped to plan units in literature. Reading literary selections grouped around themes, as opposed to studying types of literature, may be considered a technique remotely related to unit teaching. It was encouraging to find 23 tenth grade and 21 twelfth grade classes reporting this practice. But since many of the more recent literature anthologies group selections according to theme, it is likely that this method is indicative of the general policy of strict adherence to the textbook and not a trend toward centering units of instruction around pupils' interests. This guess is substantiated by the responses to an item on classroom libraries. Only six sophomore and nine senior classes (out of 97) reported that there were books and magazines available for them to read during class time.

Mass Media and Audio-Visual Aids

The unrealistic emphasis placed on literary analysis in non-college classes is paralleled by an unrealistic neglect of the mass media and aural communication. Most of today's high school students and graduates depend for entertainment and information on newspapers and magazines, radio, television, and motion pictures. For these people books are, at best, a second choice. Ignoring the mass media and placing all attention on the literature bound between hard covers mean that teachers are missing the opportunity to improve tastes and appreciations in the area where the chances for improvement are best.

No sophomore class and only one senior class studied newspapers. A more encouraging number (twelve at each grade level) reported discussing movies, radio, and television, but 26 sophomore and 21 senior classes said they never discussed these media. That students are receiving little help in interpreting graphic materials is suggested by the fact that only one class reported reading maps, graphs, and charts, and only two classes claimed experience in reading cartoons and advertisements. Films are apparently little used as teaching devices, 35 classrooms at each grade level reporting *Never* on the item which described a method for using films as a teaching aid. Similarly, 62 of the 97 classrooms reported *never* listening to recordings or seeing films in connection with their English programs. Nor is the study of English enlivened by the use of resources beyond the textbook, such as field trips and classroom visitors.

Listening

The teaching of listening is not practiced in non-college-preparatory classrooms. Four items describing activities for teaching purposeful, critical, and appreciative listening received predominantly negative responses to the current practices question. No sophomore class and only one senior class reported that they had been taught to listen either critically or appreciatively. A few more classes thought that they had had practice in increasing skill in listening purposefully or accurately. These

classes, two sophomore and six senior, reported experience in listening to a talk and summarizing what they had heard. Two sophomore and one senior class reported that they had written titles for paragraphs presented orally.

If reading skills, reference skills, listening, and the study of mass media are being neglected, if the programs in speech and writing are limited to a few expressional activities, what does constitute the language arts curriculum for non-academic students? The answer would seem to be (a) studying forms of literature and (b) mastering rules of formal grammar and usage — these two, in about equal, unpalatable doses.

Grammar and Usage

This study shows that out of 75 skills and abilities those most frequently recognized by students as having been taught in their English classes are the grammar and usage skills. Of 18 topics concerned with grammar and usage, all but one were reported in 50 per cent or more of the classes at either grade level. With the exception of diagraming, topics requiring specialized knowledge of descriptive, analytical grammar remain in the English program of non-college-preparatory boys and girls, who are not likely to become specialists in language. Few classes at either grade level reported *No* on the following concepts of formal grammar: learning parts of speech; identifying kinds of sentences, phrases, and clauses; studying cases of pronouns and the names of sentences; studying infinitives, gerunds, and participles and the mood and voice of verbs.

Responses to the teaching-learning activities described under grammar and usage in the second section of the questionnaire support the conclusion that formal content is presented by formal methods. In more than half the classrooms studied, the teaching of usage as well as grammar is limited to textbook assignments. Pupils learn rules, complete textbook exercises, and recite on them. The common method of teaching spelling is to have the whole class study the same list of words as preparation for a test. Of four activities describing methods of adjusting to individual differences in language abilities through pre-testing and small-group instruction, none was recognized by students as common practice.

Two items in the classroom activities section of the questionnaire sought information on whether or not study of the growth and change of language is being introduced in non-college English classes. Some evidence that pupils are being helped to understand levels of usage was found in the responses to an item which described discussion of the kinds of language acceptable in various situations. Students in 31 senior classes and 15 sophomore classes responded in the affirmative to this item. A second item on the growth and development of language yielded fewer affirmative responses. Only two tenth-grade classes and ten senior classes felt that attention had been given to a study of the history of language.

From the foregoing resumé of the current practices investigation which formed a part of this study, one point is startlingly clear: A wide divergence exists between the recommendations of such authorities as the Commission on English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English and the practices of class-

TABLE III. Preferences of Tenth and Twelfth Grade Girls for Major Parts of English (in rank order, showing number and per cent liking)

512 Grade 10 Girls			461 Grade 12 Girls		
	Like			*Like*	
Item	*No.*	*%*	*Item*	*No.*	*%*
Spelling	371	72	Spelling	335	73
Reading Skills	339	66	Reading Skills	334	72
Writing Skills	318	62	Literature	294	64
Literature	301	59	Writing Skills	293	63
Speaking Skills	239	47	Speaking Skills	245	53
Grammar and Usage	216	42	Grammar and Usage	221	48
Reference Skills	212	41	Reference Skills	195	42
Word Study	193	38	Word Study	188	41

room teachers. Is there also a divergence between what students want to learn and what they are being taught? It was the second purpose of this study to find out what students want to learn by having them react to many specific items of content and methods of instruction, both those in common practice and those recommended by professional opinion but not yet widely used.

What Do They Want To Learn?

Answers to the question, "What language skills do students consider useful?" should indicate areas in which pupil motivation is high, for presumably students want to learn what they consider useful. Students were asked to rate each of 75 skills and abilities as "very useful," "fairly useful," and "not at all useful." A "usefulness" score was computed for each item by the following formula: To the number of pupils rating an item "very useful" was added one-half the number of those who rated it "fairly useful." This sum was divided by the total number of pupils to obtain a per cent score. The range of usefulness scores, when the items were rated by girls, extended from 37 to 88 per cent; when rated by boys, from 31 to 81 per cent. Only ten skills were rated below 50 per cent by girls; 17 fell below the 50 per cent mark in the boys' rating.

Among the skills rated most useful by both boys and girls are taking part in introductions and conversations; overcoming fear in giving talks. Increasing vocabulary is very highly rated by both boys and girls, but word study skills like syllabication and learning prefixes, suffixes, and roots receive much lower ratings. Usage skills also rate high. Low usefulness scores are given to all types of writing assignments except letters, to topics in formal grammar, and to reading poetry, plays, cartoons, and advertisements. The least useful skill, according to both boys and girls, is diagraming sentences.

Comparing the topics which non-college-preparatory students consider useful with those they believe have been included in their English courses reveals little correlation between order of usefulness and frequency of practice. For example, all 16 speech skills were accorded high usefulness scores, but only three of them (and these were not rated the most useful) were reported in common practice. All the reference skills received usefulness scores above 50 per cent, but not one of them appears among the list of skills and abilities taught in more than half the classrooms. The reading skills that rated highest were increasing vocabulary, learning how to concentrate, remembering

TABLE IV. Preferences of Tenth and Twelfth Grade Boys for Major Parts of English (in rank order, showing number and per cent liking)

486 Grade 10 Boys			470 Grade 12 Boys		
	Like			Like	
Item	*No.*	*%*	*Item*	*No.*	*%*
Reading Skills	322	66	Reading Skills	315	67
Literature	279	57	Literature	278	59
Spelling	279	57	Speaking Skills	247	53
Reference Skills	233	48	Spelling	245	52
Writing Skills	211	43	Writing Skills	233	49
Speaking Skills	199	41	Reference Skills	180	38
Word Study	142	29	Word Study	142	30
Grammar and Usage	123	25	Grammar and Usage	126	27

what is read, learning how to say a long word never seen before, increasing speed of reading, finding main ideas, learning how to divide words into syllables. Only three of these were recognized by students as having been taught in more than half the classrooms studied. On the other hand, lower usefulness ratings were accorded to items classified under writing and grammar and usage, many of which were included in the list of common practices.

It seems reasonable to conclude that non-college-preparatory students are well disposed towards acquiring most of the language skills that might be included in the English curriculum, but they would prefer somewhat different emphases than are now being given to the various branches of English instruction. For example, they would give more attention to oral communication than to written and much less attention to formal grammar concepts than to good usage. In reading they would emphasize many skills and abilities that they report are not now being offered to them.

What Methods Do They Like?

Although students consider useful most of the skills and abilities that might be included in an English curriculum, they do not react enthusiastically to methods of instruction in English. Of the 64 teaching-learning activities described in part two of the questionnaire, 36 were preferred by fewer than 50 per cent of the girls, 46 by fewer than 50 per cent of the boys.

In analyzing the data for this part of the study, a distinction was made between the responses of pupils who had experienced the activity in their English classes and the responses of pupils who reacted only on the basis of descriptions in the questionnaire. Graphing the responses of "experienced" and "inexperienced" students showed the same pattern of reactions for each group, but pupils who had experienced a particular activity were more likely to show preference for it than were those pupils who had not experienced it. Obviously, lack of experience caused many students to react cautiously toward some of the recommended practices.

Activities preferred by 65 per cent or more of both boys and girls are the following: listening to recordings or seeing films based on reading; going on field trips; discussing movies, radio and television; free reading in books from the classroom library; having classroom visitors. Since girls responded generally with more enthusiasm than boys, additional best-liked activities may be enumer-

ated for girls: spelling from a class list, using a check list to rate speech qualities when a recording has been made, discussing levels of usage, listening to a play, keeping a personal record of books read, acting out plays, receiving individual help in writing themes, receiving help in English class on a paper written for another course.

Few students (25 per cent or fewer) liked the following activities: listening for main ideas of paragraphs, studying the techniques of poetry, memorizing spelling rules, either small-group or whole-class methods of studying grammar, using reference skills to find answers to specific questions. More girls than boys rejected the idea of socialized correction of themes.

A few more activities were rated low by boys, not so low by girls. These included memorizing poetry, taking notes on a short talk, keeping a vocabulary notebook, studying types of literature, class evaluation of oral reports, group instruction in usage skills based on pre-testing, learning facts of authors' lives, studying ideas presented in poetry, writing letters, and writing themes for a class notebook.

In short, students like best those activities that offer variety, dramatic appeal, purposeful goals, and freedom from the textbook.

Do English Offerings Appeal More Strongly to Girls than to Boys?

The answer is a qualified *yes*. The appeal of English instruction — as a whole, in its major parts, in specific skills and abilities, and in certain teaching-learning activities — is stronger for girls than for boys. But this answer must be qualified in one respect. Differences between boys' and girls' responses to single items were frequently significant, but when topics and activities in each of the major parts of English were placed in rank order, differences in the rankings accorded by boys and girls were not marked. On the whole, the principal difference between boys' and girls' reactions is a matter of degree of approval rather than of order of preference.

Girls' liking for English and boys' distaste for it may be due to the subject matter around which language skills are developed. Research in reading interests seems to support this conjecture. Word study and usage exercises can be built around subject matter that is interesting enough in its own right to pay dividends beyond the development of skills. Materials of this kind are needed for motivation if boys are to achieve proficiency in the tools of written expression.

What Can We Do About It?

If changes are to be made in the English program, the responsibility lies with individual teachers who have the courage to experiment. Introducing effective teaching practices need not wait for sweeping curriculum revision, which moves slowly because it involves group action. Teachers can begin to make English more appealing and productive as soon as they have developed plans to put one new idea into effect.

This study was undertaken to provide teachers with one kind of information needed in planning more effective instruction; that is, knowledge of students' interests. How can this information be used to advantage? One of the truisms of modern educational theory is that students learn best what they want to learn.

But in using students' interests in curriculum revision, the teacher does not abdicate in favor of the learner. Sometimes knowledge of pupils' interests — or lack of interest — serves only to show the teacher where a better job of motivation needs to be done. At other times pupil opinion and the results of research confirm each other, giving the teacher added confidence in accepting or rejecting a particular practice.

The results of this study have suggested that the field is wide open for improvements of any kind. Some obvious starting points are suggested in the following paragraphs.

1. *Adding Variety to English Instruction.* Two basic remedies are suggested for the chronic complaint that English is dull. Pupils "do the same old thing over and over" in English programs where emphasis is placed on learning rules of grammar and usage and correcting other people's writing. If the objectives of correct usage are sought through the use of language in purposeful situations, individual pupils will experience more variety in the skills program because they will be freed from unnecessary repetitive drill and their attention will be focused on correcting weaknesses peculiar to themselves. The first remedy, then, may be found in adjusting to individual differences by: (1) locating pupils' needs; (2) providing practice for correcting individual errors; (3) giving pupils a valid reason for using language skills.

A second cure for the drabness of English instruction is to provide activities that appeal to pupils' love of the dramatic and their concern for the "here and now" rather than the "long ago and faraway." Rigid textbook instruction is deadening. The whole-class assignment from the same text ignores individual interests as well as individual abilities. Textbooks are, of course, invaluable teaching aids, but they are only one of the avenues of learning. Pupils also learn through films, recordings, filmstrips, field trips, and classroom visitors. Carefully selected and well presented, audio-visual aids are not merely motivational devices; they are bright substitutes for textbook and lecture methods.

2. *Oral Communication.* Students want to increase their skill in oral communication, in spite of the fact that the speech activities they are used to apparently increase their apprehension. (Overcoming fear in giving talks is given top priority by both boys and girls.) They should have more successful experiences in speaking. The security they need can be provided by group speaking activities — discussions, conversations, telephone techniques, interviews, introductions. At the same time, students' interests in activities that serve social purposes will be met. When individual reports are called for, pupils may be helped to attain poise by the knowledge that their reports are purposeful — that their listeners want to hear what they have to say. Floor talks that require showing pictures, diagrams, models, filmstrips, and slides stimulate interest and help pupils overcome fear.

3. *Written Communication.* A richer variety of purposeful writing activities is needed if pupils are to be well motivated in this fairly unpopular phase of the language arts. The low level of motivation implied in spelling twenty words correctly to get a

score of one hundred, or writing themes for the grades they will win may hold some students, especially girls. But both boys and girls need many opportunities to see that effective use of language brings more important rewards than simply winning the teacher's approval. An interest in skilful, or at least careful, use of language is promoted when letters are written to be mailed; when "themes" are written to be shared with others, often in some kind of publication; when labels, captions, reports, explanations or directions are needed in connection with exhibits, displays, assembly programs, and other special events. If the situations which the teacher provides for the use of writing have honest purposes, if they involve adolescent interests, if the English classroom becomes a place to "get things done" that require language skills, boys and girls may derive satisfaction, if not pleasure, from writing tasks.

4. *Reading.* Pupils are not now receiving help in acquiring the reading skills which they consider useful. A well-developed program demands much more than teaching main ideas and vocabulary building. Effective instruction in reading also provides for developing skill in word analysis, in organizational and critical reading, and in the special skills necessary for understanding and appreciating fiction, poetry, drama, and other literary types. Because these skills need to be taught at many different levels in high school classes, where the range in abilities is necessarily wide, a major problem, and therefore opportunity, lies in providing materials of high interest on a variety of reading levels. Too few published materials are available; therefore, the task of creating exercises for improving reading skills lies with the classroom teacher.

5. *Literature.* No area of English demands more creative ability than introducing students to the delights of good literature. The evidence is ample that no perfect means have yet been found for raising the literary tastes of students of wide varieties of reading ability, experience, and interests. The appeal of many selections of literary merit that are not now standard fare should be tested. Better techniques are needed for capturing the interest and attention of the whole class in a few selections to be read intensively. Much work is still to be done in organizing the wide reading program in such a way that all students grow in maturity of taste. Effective measures of attitudes, tastes, and appreciations are still to be written. Other opportunities lie in showing students, especially boys, the pleasures in poetry and oral reading, in stimulating appreciation of wit and humor, and in motivating play reading.

6. *Listening.* Because the teaching of listening is still a very new idea, teachers can pioneer in the development of materials, techniques, and testing devices. A whole new field is just beginning to open up as teachers experiment with listening as a substitute for reading in the program for slow learners.

7. *Mass Media.* What are the best techniques for raising standards of appreciation for films, television, and radio programs? Can some of the techniques for teaching reading and literature be transferred to aural and visual communication? What new skills must be developed for better understanding of films and television?

How can study of newspapers and magazines be handled effectively?

8. *Word Study.* Teachers, aided by the force of public opinion, have apparently impressed students with the need for increasing their vocabularies. Teachers have not been so successful in devising appealing methods of word study. The assignment of word lists and the study of prefixes, suffixes, and roots probably do not achieve the objective of increasing pupils' awareness of words. Better approaches are to be found in the study of the change and growth of language and the influence of words on emotions and actions. A variety of devices for word study should supplement the dictionary methods.

9. *Recognition of Gains.* One reason that pupils lose interest in many phases of the language arts is that they cannot find perceptible gains in learning. The high rating of spelling, for example, is probably due to the fact that achievement in spelling is easy to recognize and therefore satisfying. If achievement in more important branches of English, like written expression, speech, and reading, could be made equally clear to pupils, the appeal of activities in these areas might be raised. While some progress has been made in analyzing the reading process so that gains can be measured, almost nothing has been done to analyze objectively the growth of ability in speaking and writing. An important contribution will be made by teachers who make this analysis, devise materials based on the progressive difficulty of skill in expression, and show pupils how to measure their progress.

10. *Maintaining a Balance.* A review of the possibilities for improving the program in English may leave the teacher momentarily stunned by the plethora of things to be done. For the sake of a balanced program and a balanced teacher, selections must be made. Very often the basis of selection will be the teacher's own specialties. An excellent program may emphasize ways of improving written communication if the teacher's chief talent lies in developing skill in writing. An equally good program may give stronger attention to oral activities or to improving skill in reading or to exploring the mass media. But wherever the major emphasis, no other important phase of language development can be wholly neglected. Then what can be omitted? To fit in the essentials, waste motions must be eliminated. The traditional program, which is rejected by educators because it produces unsatisfactory results and by students because it generates boredom, is top heavy with the theory of language and literature. The findings of research on the futility of teaching grammar as an analytical, theoretical study say let this waste motion go. Time that pupils used to spend in mastering rules and doing arid exercises can be released for learning to *use* language. Similarly, the great amount of time necessary for detailed analysis of literary classics can be salvaged for more productive techniques for promoting love of reading.

Improvement in English will not come from a timid chipping away at a monolith of tradition. In the rejection of the traditional program by both experts and students, the classroom teacher has been given a clear signal to introduce any innovations so long as they meet the twofold test of stimulating pupils' interest and improving skill in communication.

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In addition to research, the Warren Project has conducted meetings for English teachers both at Boston University and in other centers in New England, instituted the annual Warren Workshop for teachers of English, collected an extensive library of instructional materials for use with the Project, and prepared many new materials which have had wide circulation.

Of these materials, the most useful have been the series of four bulletins on *Adjusting to Individual Differences*. These bulletins are reprinted with some revision as the first four chapters of the present issue of the *Journal of Education*.

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